

ACADEMIC PAPER

GENDER IMPACT ASSESSMENT METHODOLOGY



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UN WOMEN

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ACRONYMS AND ABBREVIATIONS

CARE	Cooperative for Assistance and Relief Everywhere
CRS	Catholic Relief Services
EIGE	European Institute for Gender Equality
EPRR	Equal Pay Review and Reporting
EU	European Union
EUDEL	Association of Basque Municipalities
FAO	Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations
GEL	Georgian lari
Geostat	National Statistics Office of Georgia
GIA	Gender Impact Assessment
GRB	Gender-responsive Budgeting
HERD	Health Research and Social Development Forum
IFAD	International Fund for Agricultural Development
ILO	International Labour Organization
ISSET-PI	International School of Economics at Tbilisi State University – Policy Institute
OECD	Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development
RDA	Rural Development Agency
RIA	Regulatory Impact Assessment
SDGs	Sustainable Development Goals
SME	Small and Medium-sized Enterprise
UN Women	United Nations Entity for Gender Equality and the Empowerment of Women
UNDP	United Nations Development Programme
UNESCO	United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization
UNFPA	United Nations Population Fund
UNICEF	United Nations Children’s Fund
WECF	Women Engage for a Common Future International

GLOSSARY

Sex, gender, gender equity, equality and gender integration are terms that have become common in global discourse regarding gender mainstreaming. However, there continues to be much confusion and debate surrounding their meanings. In different contexts and at different times, each may represent different ideological stances and may be used to identify a variety of practices. Thus, it is important at the outset of this manual to establish a common understanding of concepts related to gender mainstreaming from which we can proceed with an in-depth and practical discussion. The following definitions are sourced from international agreements and documents and are simply presented to provide clarity and to facilitate the use of the manual without getting mired in theoretical and sometimes abstract debates.

Gender — a socially constructed definition of women and men. It is the social design of a biological sex, determined by the conception of tasks, functions and roles attributed to women and men in society and in public and private life. It is a culture-specific definition of femininity and masculinity and therefore varies in time and space (Council of Europe, 1998). Gender is not a synonym for sex or for women.

Sex — identifies the biological differences between women and men and is genetically determined. Only a very small proportion of the differences in roles assigned to men and women can be attributed to biological or physical differences based on sex. For example, pregnancy, childbirth and differences in physiology can be attributed to sex-related characteristics.

Gender relations — the social relations between women and men. They are concerned with the distribution of power between the sexes. They define the way in which responsibilities and social expectations are allocated, as well as the way in which each is given a value. Gender relations vary according to time and place and between different groups of people. In other words, they vary according to other social relations such as class, race, ethnicity, disability, age and culture. A gender relations approach to policy means attending to the ways in which interactions between women and men, and the circumstances under which they interact, are relevant to the existing or proposed policy. In this view, gender is a process rather than a characteristic of a person. We do not have gender; we do gender.

Gender equality — the equal visibility, empowerment and participation of both sexes in all spheres of public and private life (Council of Europe, 1998). This understanding of equality moves us past a simple equal-treatment approach, which establishes men and their conditions as the norm. It is important to acknowledge, for example, that Aboriginal women's concerns regarding equity are most often not driven by the desire for equality with men but by community-based issues and fundamental human rights.

Gender equity — the outcome of being fair to women and men. This necessitates addressing and redressing factors that contribute to women's subordination. To ensure fairness, measures must often be available to compensate for historical and social disadvantages that prevent women and men from otherwise operating on a level playing field. Equity can be understood as the means, while equality is the end. Equity leads to equality.

Gender analysis — a process to assess the differential impact of proposed or existing policies, programmes, projects and legislation on men and women. Gender analysis recognizes that the realities of men's and women's lives are different and that equal opportunity does not necessarily mean equal results.

Gender mainstreaming — an organizational strategy to bring a gender perspective to all aspects of an institution's policy and activities by building of gender capacity and accountability.

Systemic discrimination — caused by policies and practices that are built into systems and that have the effect of excluding women and minorities. Although it may not exclude all members of a group, it will have a more serious effect on one group than on others.

Gender responsiveness — entails consistent and systematic attention to the differences between women and men in society with a view to addressing structural constraints to gender equality.

Gender-sensitive — policies and programmes that take into account the particularities pertaining to the lives of both women and men while aiming to eliminate inequalities and promote gender equality, including an equal distribution of resources, therefore addressing and taking into account the gender dimension.

Gender blindness — failure to recognize that the roles and responsibilities of women/girls and men/boys are ascribed to, or imposed upon, them in specific social, cultural, economic and political contexts.

Gender-neutral — assumes that policies/programmes/projects affect all people in the same way or that a policy/programme/project has a neutral impact on people. Gender-neutral analysis does not result in equitable outcomes for women and men. If you adopt a gender-neutral approach, you will unintentionally perpetuate existing inequities in the lives of men and women.

Gender and cultural analysis — broadens the “gender-based” framework to include and reflect the multidimensional experiences of women in different social and economic strata and of women from culturally and linguistically diverse backgrounds. All discussions about equality, equity or disadvantage must be inclusive of discussions about diversity and human rights (Harris, 1990; Ma Rhee, 2000).

Women’s empowerment — a bottom-up process

of transforming gender power relations through individuals or groups developing awareness of women’s subordination and building their capacity to challenge it.

Women-specific approach — refers to initiatives that target women or girls exclusively. These initiatives tend to have an explicit objective to meet practical or strategic needs of women that are not always addressed through the integrated approach. Such activities are often valuable development investments, especially where they are catalytic, innovative or strategic or where they remedy a particularly urgent gender inequity. They are justified as being necessary to overcome gender blindness that has in the past excluded women from the benefits of development.

Gendered organization of work — refers to the ways in which women in our society have the primary responsibility for tasks performed in the domestic realm, the care and nurturance of children and of those who are dependent. By contrast, it is assumed that men are generally free to commit themselves full-time to labour outside the home. This unequal division of care responsibilities often means that women are found working in particular sectors of the labour market – for example, working part-time. The caring and nurturing roles that women hold are also reflected in the industry and occupational segregation of the workforce.

Diversity — a concept that draws attention to the ways in which people cut across the categories of gender, race, disability, age, sexual orientation and class. Attending to diversity means drawing attention to intersections between and among these categories where these intersections are relevant to the policy under consideration. Because gender is understood in the GIA as a process, it is important to examine the impact of gendered assumptions on the creation of hierarchical relations beyond those between “men” and “women” (see “gender relations” definition above).

ABOUT THIS METHODOLOGY

The gender impact assessment (GIA) is an equality tool that helps assess the gendered impact of different policies, programmes and services. It provides technical knowledge to enhance public sector organizations, think tanks and international development organizations to create gender-responsive and equitable programmes. It is an useful evidence-based policymaking tool that aims to achieve the best possible outcome from incorporating a gender dimension into the governance process and increase its efficiency.

This methodology clarifies the concepts underlying the GIA and provides guidelines for its practical use. It is designed to assist government officials, policymakers, practitioners, trainers and the international donor community, as well as others interested in this dynamic and evolving area of incorporating gender issues while planning, implementing, monitoring and/or evaluating any policy, law or draft law, activity or programme. More specifically, this methodology can serve as a reference point to empower policymakers to carry out a GIA of all policies, draft laws, programmes and activities to ensure that prior to their implementation, a thorough analysis is conducted on the potential effects on both women and men, girls and boys respectively.

The content of this guide is designed to be user-friendly and provide the reader with the necessary knowledge and tools to ensure that policies, activities, programmes, projects and services are gender-sensitive. This methodology is heavily based on the “Gender Impact Assessment: Gender Mainstreaming

Toolkit” prepared by the European Institute for Gender Equality (EIGE). Apart from this document, the methodology combines the best international GIA standards with the policy design and evaluation process already existing in Georgia. It provides a context for policymakers to develop future planning in the area of gender mainstreaming and guide GIA implementation in Georgia, focusing on country peculiarities and specificities. However, it should be noted that while this guide and methodology presented herein is focused on the GIA tool and its design and elements within the contexts specific to Georgia’s political, socioeconomic and cultural environment, the guide itself does not provide any reference to the institutional set-up of the GIA process in the country.¹

This guide is aimed at providing various stakeholders with knowledge of the tool itself, with an in-depth understanding of the individual steps and of the benefit of this analysis in improving policies, programmes, laws and regulations, while the decision of how to set up the implementation process is left to the individual country context or to the existing process of an organization. This work is divided into three parts. Chapter 1 provides the definition of the GIA, its importance and how it can contribute to better policymaking and gender mainstreaming. It also presents links with the other evidence-based policymaking and gender mainstreaming tools in the country, particularly with the regulatory impact assessment (RIA) and gender-responsive budgeting (GRB). Chapter 2 is a step-by-step guide to the GIA process. It provides detailed descriptions and the

1 The institutional set-up of the GIA process and the specific process of GIA operationalization in the country depend on a wider normative context of gender mainstreaming processes. As such, precise stages and steps for GIA institutionalization are concentrated more on the specificities of an organizational set-up (e.g. different tasks and responsibilities), organizational commitment, availability of expertise and understanding of gender equality within

the organization’s specific focus of interest. Simply, different elements of an organization, including institutional, infrastructural and organizational contexts, change the approach to institutionalizing gender within organizations. Therefore, while the GIA methodology stays the same, specific GIA institutional guides and procedures have to be developed for each country based on the type of key stakeholders involved in its implementation.

main points of consideration of the three stages of the GIA – the gender relevance assessment, the gender impact assessment and the gender quality assessment – with corresponding steps for each one. Case studies and relevant examples from Georgia enrich this part. Chapter 3 is devoted to the practical considerations of the GIA – the project timeline, consultations and the data-collection process.

This methodology may be used in a number of ways, including the following:

- Raise awareness and understanding of the GIA

- Help apply this tool to national policymaking practices and improve evidence-based policymaking from a gender perspective
- Assist national equality bodies in promoting GIAs
- Provide trainers with information and examples for awareness-raising and capacity-building

This methodology is a collaborative effort between UN Women and the ISET Policy Institute (ISET-PI) within the scope of the project “Regulatory Impact Assessment and Gender Impact Assessment for Women’s Economic Empowerment in Georgia”.

INTRODUCTION

Throughout the globe, gender analysis is increasingly being used in a range of policy and project assessment settings. In the current political and economic realities, where resources are limited and the desired scope of change demands an extremely wide coverage, gender analysis helps enhance the final impact of all interventions by seeking to determine the differential impacts of policies, programmes and development options on people, based on their gender identity and other intersecting factors. Gender equality is a necessary prerequisite for achieving peaceful and sustainable development, besides being a fundamental human right. Like many other countries, the Government of Georgia has made several commitments towards gender equality.

In 2010, Georgia adopted the Law on Gender Equality² with the purpose to “ensure that there is no discrimination in any aspect of public life; create proper conditions for [the] realisation of equal rights, freedoms and opportunities for men and women; [and] prevent and eliminate any discrimination”. The law also set regulations to enhance and empower the Gender Equality Council (functioning since 2004) in the Parliament of Georgia and made it a Standing Body of the Parliament after 2010.³ According to the law, in order to ensure systematic work on gender-related issues, the establishment of gender equality councils became mandatory not only on the state level but also locally – on the level of municipalities and autonomous republics. All such councils should operate in coordination with Gender Equality Council of the Parliament of Georgia.

The 2014 Association Agreement between the European Union and the European Atomic Energy Community and their Member States, of the one part, and Georgia, of the other part⁴ introduced areas of cooperation regarding gender equality in

the ILO Decent Work Agenda (Article 239) and in employment, social policy and equal opportunities (Article 349 and Annex XXX). Also in 2014, the country adopted the Law on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination,⁵ which aims to “eliminate every form of discrimination and to ensure equal rights of every natural and legal persons under the legislation of Georgia, irrespective of race, skin colour, language, sex, age, citizenship, origin, place of birth or residence, property or social status, religion or belief, national, ethnic or social origin, profession, marital status, health, disability, sexual orientation, gender identity and expression, political or other opinions, or other characteristics”.

Afterwards in 2015, Georgia, along with all other UN Member States, expressed willingness to implement the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) and targets set for 2030.⁶ SDG 5 is about achieving gender equality and empowering all women and girls. Some other sector-specific SDGs also include gender criteria.

In addition, in the beginning of 2020, the Government of Georgia issued an ordinance, “On the Approval of Regulatory Impact Assessment (RIA) Methodology”,⁷ that made RIAs compulsory for specific legislative proposals initiated by the Government. According to this methodology, there are economic, social, environmental, public finance and sector-specific impacts (direct and indirect) to be studied within RIAs in Georgia, and gender equality is included within the social impact component.

The gender impact assessment (GIA) is a complementary tool to all (but not restricted to) the above-mentioned country strategies and policies and aims to set gender equality issues at the forefront of public policymaking within government institutions.

2 See <https://matsne.gov.ge/en/document/view/91624?publication=9>.

3 See <http://www.parliament.ge/en/saparlamento-saqmi-anoba/komisiebi-da-sabchoebi-9/genderuli-tanasworobis-sabcho/sabchos-shesaxeb>.

4 Available at [https://eur-lex.europa.eu/legal-content/en/TXT/PDF/?uri=CELEX:22014A0830\(02\)](https://eur-lex.europa.eu/legal-content/en/TXT/PDF/?uri=CELEX:22014A0830(02)).

5 Available at <https://matsne.gov.ge/en/document/view/2339687?publication=0>.

6 See <http://sdg.gov.ge/text-page/35>.

7 Available at <https://www.matsne.gov.ge/en/document/view/4776100?publication=0>.

Despite the fact that there is no legal obligation yet for conducting a GIA before or while developing public policies in Georgia, it should be understood that the GIA is still one of the most effective ways to mainstream gender successfully in the policy cycle. Thinking from the perspective that public policies are not generally gender-neutral, the GIA helps with understanding gender patterns of various public policies and analyses the differential impacts of those policies on women and men, girls and boys. This in itself contributes to better regulation and evidence-based policies.

1.1. What is a GIA?

GIA is the process of identifying the future consequences of a current or proposed action. It helps estimate the different effects (positive and negative) of any policy being implemented in terms of gender equality and takes into account the different needs, characteristics, priorities and behaviours of the users at whom the policies are ultimately aimed. The European Commission defines GIAs as follows:

Gender impact assessment is the process of comparing and assessing, according to gender relevant criteria, the **current situation and trend** with the **expected development** resulting from the introduction of the proposed policy.

Gender impact assessment is the estimation of the **different effects (positive, negative or neutral)** of any policy or activity implemented to specific items in terms of gender equality.⁸

GIA involves a two-pronged approach: looking at the current gender-related position in relation to the policy under consideration as well as assessing the projected impacts on women and men after the policy has been implemented. It allows for the screening of a given policy proposal, to detect and assess its differential impact or effects on women and men, so that these imbalances can be redressed before the proposal is endorsed. An analysis from a gender perspective helps to see whether the needs of women and men are equally considered and served by this proposal. The advantage of this tool lies in the fact that it draws a very accurate picture of the effects of a given policy, strategy or plan.

Key messages	
GIA is:	GIA is not:
A process in which different methods of analysis are used to study the proposed laws, policies and/or programmes from a gender perspective	Just a document to be attached to a draft legislation, policy or programme
An analysis performed from the perspective of society as a whole	An analysis performed solely from the perspective of the regulatory authority
A way to analyse the effects of regulatory change on gender equality, most often ex ante (and also ex post in rare cases)	A way to justify an intervention

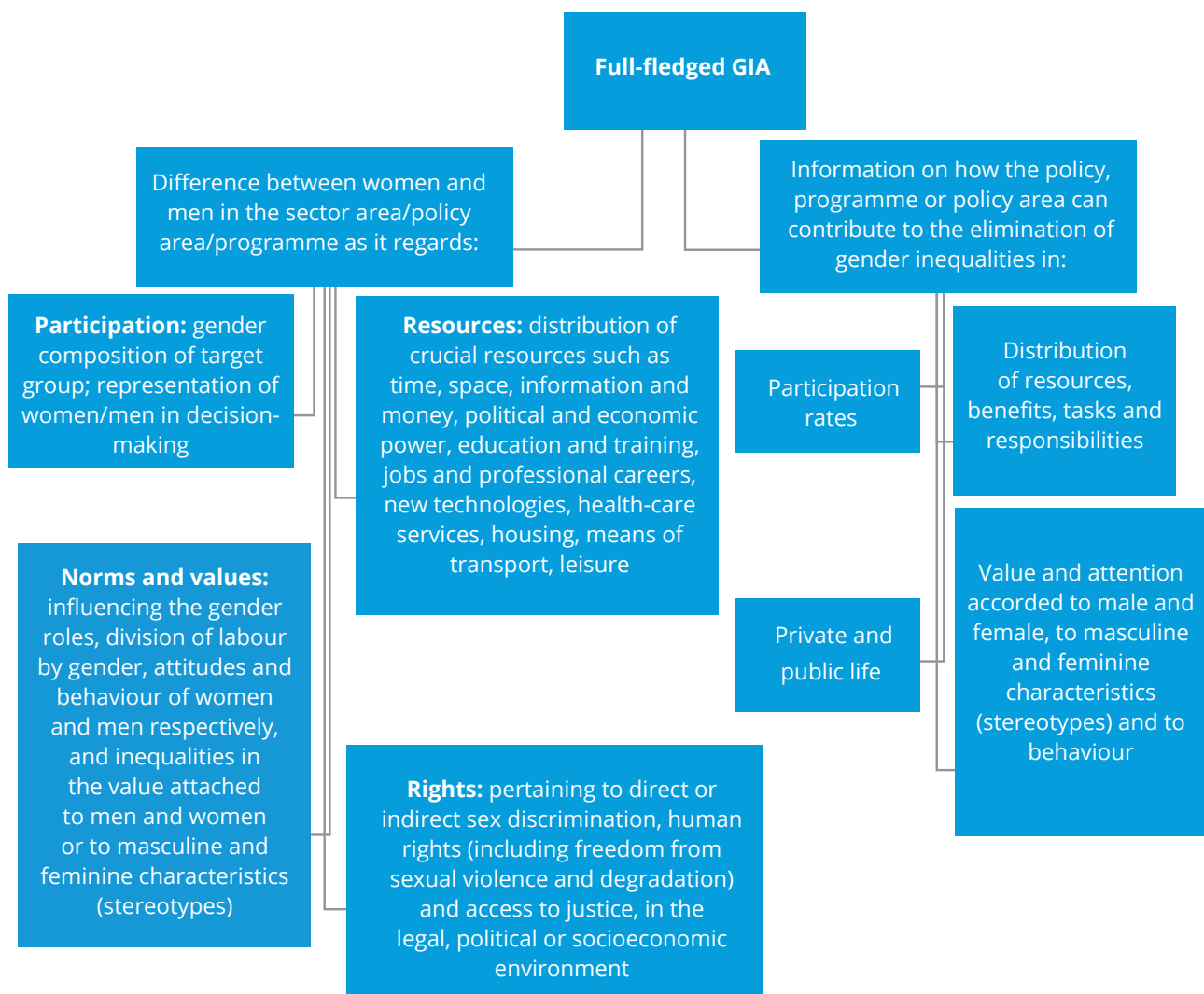
A full-fledged GIA of a policy, draft law, strategy or project will contain an analysis of the following:

- The differences between women and men in the impact area(s) under analysis
- How the policy, programme or project can contribute to the elimination of existing inequalities and promote equality between women and men (see diagram 1)

8 See <https://eige.europa.eu/gender-mainstreaming/tool-kits/gender-impact-assessment/what-gender-impact-assessment>.

Diagram 1:

Composition of a full-fledged GIA



In short, the GIA is a process that translates relevant gender and sector issues into specific policy and institutional contexts. It aims to:

1. Identify key gender issues and determinants directly relevant to the intended services to be provided by the policy/strategy/project
2. Inform gender-inclusive project designs by identifying opportunities to maximize gender benefits and to minimize and mitigate adverse gender impacts or risks through the proposed policy/strategy/project
3. Collect baseline sex-disaggregated data to be used for monitoring project outputs, outcomes and impacts during project implementation

1.2. Purpose and objectives of a GIA

It is clear that any policy, proposal or legal act that is deemed gender-relevant should undergo a gender impact assessment. Moreover, any proposal considered not relevant from a gender point of view should be accompanied by supporting justification, explaining the reasons why gender is not relevant. Likewise, even if some programmes are not subject to a gender equality impact assessment, it does not mean that the policymakers and public servants in charge of drafting them, implementing them, monitoring them or evaluating them are exempt from the commitment to eliminating inequalities

and promoting gender equality. In fact, they should ensure that, in designing their programmes, they have taken into consideration the impact these programmes will have on different groups in society and, therefore, their diverse impact on women, men, girls and boys in all of those groups. Indeed, the GIA is a tool that helps public authorities make sure that the policies they create, and the ways they carry out their functions, do what they are intended to do and for everybody.

Even policy decisions that appear gender-neutral may have a differential impact on women and men and may strengthen social, cultural or economic gender inequalities, even when such an effect was neither intended nor anticipated (EIGE, 2016). Such policies and regulations may target the entire population, or some of the population, with no distinction made between women and men, on the assumption that these policies benefit all members of the public equally. This assumption, however, might be wrong. If this is the case, such policies are **not gender-neutral⁹ but gender-blind¹⁰**. Taking into consideration this reality, and in order to promote more gender-sensitive¹¹ public policies, it is necessary to understand and consider the existing inequalities¹² between women and men while designing policies. If public institutions and policies are organized and formulated without taking into consideration the reality of inequality, they may indeed help perpetuate inequality (EUDEL, 2018).

Having in mind the challenges mentioned above, a GIA is carried out for two main purposes:

1. **Avoiding any adverse discriminatory effects of the proposed or already ongoing public policy/intervention/regulation:** For example, if the proposed policy intervention aims to regulate the labour market, a GIA would help in this situation to consider the different situations of women and men workers. Without a GIA, labour-market regulations may end up worsening the situation of women who spend a significant part of their productive time on unpaid housework and care-giving activities for children and elderly family members. Another example would be one of the capital projects, like building a bridge – this kind of policy would seem gender-neutral at first sight, but in reality, it would have a differential impact on women and men in terms of usage, security issues, access to basic services and infrastructure, among other considerations.
2. **Ensuring that, while designing policies and promoting the overarching objective of gender equality in different fields of life within society, the needs of both women and men are met:** Designing country development strategies and policies, as well as working on different sector-specific development plans, without considering a gender dimension in the policies will be detrimental to a significant part of effective public policies. Almost all public issues are gender-relevant, so almost all country development policies should take into consideration the different needs of women and men. For example, designing agricultural policies, SME-targeted policies and the like

9 Gender-neutral: policy, programme or situation that has no differential positive or negative impact in terms of gender relations or equality between women and men (EIGE definition, available at <https://eige.europa.eu/thesaurus/terms/1190>).

10 Gender blindness: failure to recognise that the roles and responsibilities of women/girls and men/boys are ascribed to, or imposed upon, them in specific social, cultural, economic and political contexts (EIGE definition, available at <https://eige.europa.eu/thesaurus/terms/1157>).

11 Gender-sensitive: policies and programmes that take into account the particularities pertaining to the lives of both

women and men, while aiming to eliminate inequalities and promote gender equality, including an equal distribution of resources, therefore addressing and taking into account the gender dimension (EIGE definition, available at <https://eige.europa.eu/thesaurus/terms/1211>).

12 In general, these inequalities can be observed in country gender statistics (for example, see the case for Georgia at <http://gender.geostat.ge/gender/index.php?lang=ka>) and/or assessed by various international indices, such as the Gender Development Index (GDI), Gender Inequality Index (GII), Gender Gap Index (GGI), Gender Equality Index (GEI), etc.

requires analysing the situation of women and men in the sector in terms of participation, resources, norms and values and rights and then introducing the policy afterwards.

To sum up, the **primary objective** of a GIA is to **make sure that any discriminatory effects of a proposed policy or intervention are first and foremost identified, dealt with and then either removed or mitigated.**

The goal of any impact assessment is to analyse the potential effects of new policy plans or programmes before implementation. Likewise, GIA is extremely helpful when analysing the effects of current programmes. As is the case with other impact assessments, there are several steps involved in designing a gender equality impact assessment study, often including the following:

1. A thorough description of the actual situation before the implementation of a new policy plan
2. An assessment of the probable development of this situation in the absence of any new policy (called the zero alternative)
3. The analysis of the content of the policy plan, its measures, time schedules, goals and areas of action

The analysis of the current situation, the probable development of the situation and the policy plan itself make it then possible to:

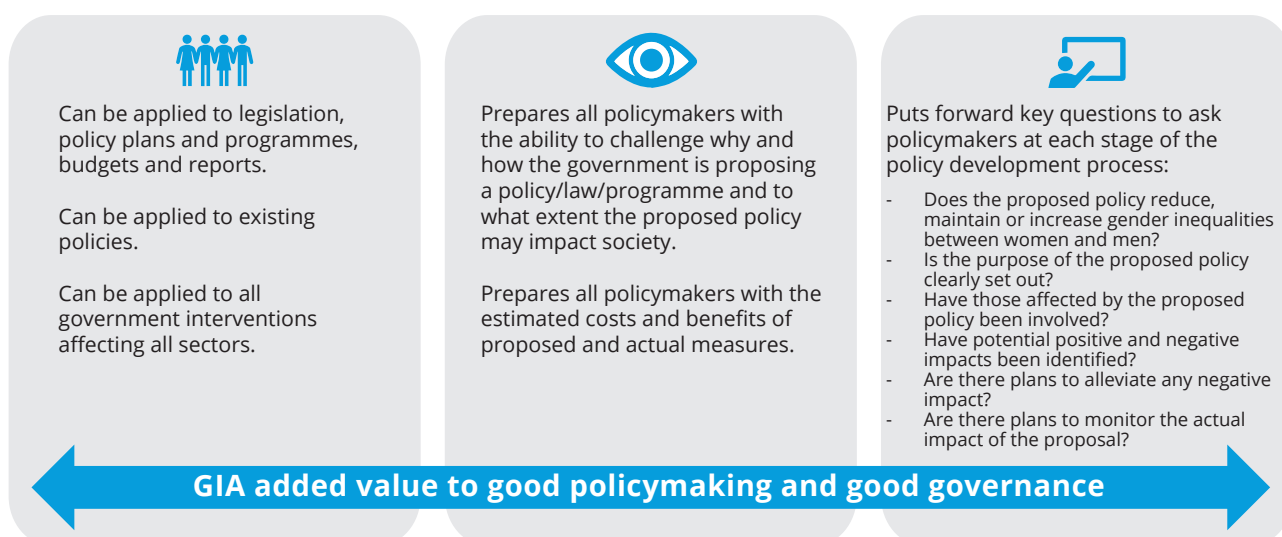
1. Describe potential effects
2. Balance the positive and negative effects against each other
3. Redesign (in case there is a need) the proposed policy based on the findings

1.3. Why should policymakers use a GIA?

Beyond avoiding negative effects, the GIA is a tool to be used in a more transformative way for defining gender equality objectives and formulating policies to proactively promote gender equality. A GIA enables policymakers to:

- Meet the different needs and interests of women and men
- Identify gender inequalities in terms of access to and control of resources
- Consider the interaction of policies with gender roles and gender-based stereotypes
- Anticipate the potentially different effects on women and men
- Ensure that the outcomes of policies will support gender equality

Diagram 2:
GIA as a tool for good policy making and good governance



In the wider context of public finance management and good governance, the GIA is a tool to be used in evidence-based policymaking and therefore should be an integral part of good decision-making by an organization. It can assist public authorities in fully understanding the relevance and effect of policies and in identifying the most proportionate

and effective responses.¹³ In the light of ever-present budgetary reductions in public spending, where institutions must make difficult financial decisions, the GIA can be utilized as a key tool to ensure that those policies and budgetary decisions are made based on evidence and take into consideration the needs of all members of society.

Reasons to use a GIA in the policymaking process
A tool to strengthen gender equality and promote economic development
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● GIA ensures that outcomes of policies and services contribute to gender equality ● GIA ensures increasing the benefits to society from more gender equality and women's increasing participation in the economy
Better policies
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● GIA, like all impact assessment processes, contributes to designing better, evidence-based policies and provides information about the foreseen results
Better governance
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● A high-quality GIA is responsive to the needs of all citizens – women and men, girls and boys
A tool for learning
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● GIA reveals the challenges in terms of gender equality and identifies actions needed to fill the gender gaps ● GIA contributes to building up important knowledge about gender inequality by exploring relevant questions and data

The main benefits of a GIA can be summarized as follows:

- Better understanding of the **needs** of the target groups by gender
- Better insight into, and understanding of, **the real impacts** of regulations and public policies on specific target groups
- Timely discovery of **unintended impacts** of regulations on women and men, girls and boys
- Greater **transparency and inclusiveness** of the policymaking process, for example, by giving stakeholders to opportunity to present their views and additional facts in consultation with the regulator and in public consultation
- Increased citizen **participation** in the processes, namely raising the level and quality of participation of women and men at all levels of society
- Increased demand for **better statistics and sex-disaggregated data** in all fields of public matters, thereby improving the quality of information for policymakers
- Wider **understanding of gender equality issues** among policymakers and citizens

13 The delivery of public services depends on an understanding of the different communities to be served, taking their diverse needs into account.

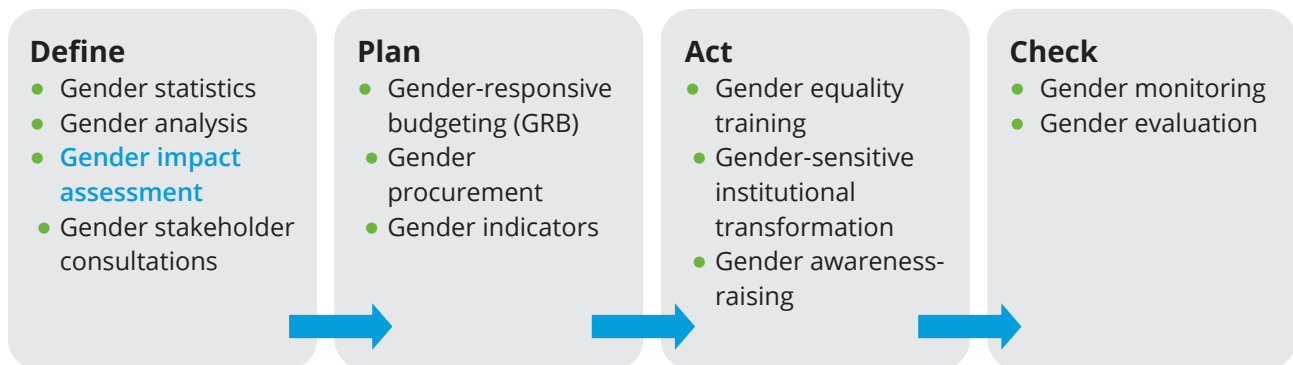
1.4. When should policymakers use a GIA?

As the EIGE’s methodology suggests (EIGE, 2016), a **GIA should be used in the very early stages of policymaking (ex ante)** to assess the potential effects of proposed changes to a policy or law. The aim is to achieve a significant impact not only on the policy design but also on its planning, in order to ensure adequate equality outcomes. In this way, before the regulation or administrative procedure is approved, a GIA ascertains whether the activity planned may have any positive or negative repercussions from the perspective of eliminating inequalities between women and men and promoting equality in the social

context concerned (EUDEL, 2018).

Another rationale of carrying out a GIA prior to policy/ programme planning is that, in many cases, after implementing a GIA, respective policies and projects can be modified. Therefore, a GIA can also be seen as a risk management tool (Oxfam Asia, 2013) that enables policymakers to adjust their projects/ programmes, taking into consideration the existing patterns of equality between men and women in specific fields, industries and communities. The figure below presents different tools and methods for gender mainstreaming, as well as the stages of policymaking, and shows where the GIA stands in this process, according to the EIGE’s methodology.

Methods and tools used in different stages of the policy cycle



Other experiences (UNDP, 2007; Commonwealth of Learning, 2015; Oxfam Australia, 2017; Grill, n.d.; Teschner, 2013) show that a GIA may also be carried out at the end of a policy cycle (ex post). This means that GIA methods can also be applied to existing policies. Ex post GIA can be used to assess the real effects of an existing policy or law. The question here would be “Do women and men benefit from an existing policy?”, compared to an ex ante assessment, where the question is “Will women and men benefit from a proposed policy?” (UNDP, 2007).

1.5. GIA within the context of GRB in Georgia

GIA can be used as a prerequisite for effective gender-responsive budgeting (GRB). GRB is an application of

gender mainstreaming to the budgetary process. It helps with understanding the gender implications of fiscal policy and ensures the adequate allocation of budget resources by aligning the budget programmes and initiatives with the strategic objectives. Therefore, **GRB does not imply separate budgeting for women and men, boys and girls; rather, an effective and inclusive fiscal policy is achieved by redesigning budget procedures so that they contribute to increase gender equality in the country.** GRB is not yet part of Georgia’s fiscal framework. However, since the 2012 institutionalization of performance-based budgeting in the country and the incorporation of gender indicators where necessary¹⁴ after 2015, the topic has become part of the agenda of many national institutions, which have been starting to pilot GRB projects and methodologies.

14 Changes made in 2015 to the methodology on the adoption of performance budgeting (Order of the Minister of Finance of Georgia No. 385 of 8 July 2011) note: “Given the specifics, if necessary, in relation to gender-

sensitive programmes, it is desirable to indicate one of the indicators of the programme in the gender aspect”. Available at <https://matsne.gov.ge/ka/document/view/1400751?publication=0>.



As GIA is the analytical approach behind gender-aware policy appraisal and helps identify ways in which policies and their associated resource allocations can support gender equality, many countries use it as an essential tool for GRB. According to an OECD survey on gender budgeting, 9 out of 12 countries use ex ante GIA and 7 out of 12 countries use ex post GIA to support effective gender budgeting (OECD, 2014).

In its broader use, a GIA can be utilized to measure the budgetary impacts on gender equality. Therefore, applying the GIA at the first stage of GRB helps with understanding the gender dimension of planned budget activities and/or programmes by analysing the effects of the fiscal policy on the behavioural and distributional gender differences. During the second stage of GRB, the results of the applied GIA are used to set reasonable performance goals and, finally, decide what resources to allocate through the budget process in order to effectively meet these goals.

1.6. GIA within the context of RIA in Georgia

On 17 January 2020, the Government of Georgia approved the official RIA methodology and institutionalized the RIA process. The Government defines the RIA as follows:

Regulatory impact assessment – a systemic approach for elaborating an evidence-based policy. A key mechanism for ensuring regulatory quality, which facilitates the determination of policy issues in a structured manner and the assessment

of expected positive and negative outcomes of regulatory or non-regulatory actions.¹⁵

According to the methodology, the main objective of an RIA is “to facilitate the implementation of evidence-based, better quality regulatory/non-regulatory action elaborated with the involvement of citizens and stakeholders”, and an RIA addresses the following questions:

- What is the problem/issue, and who claims it is a problem/issue?
- Is it necessary to regulate the problem/issue?
- Which groups (stakeholders/subjects of impact) are or may be affected by the problem in the future?
- What is the expected outcome as a result of regulating the problem/issue?
- What are the options for a solution to the problem/issue?
- How does the problem/issue affect certain fields?
- How will the performance, monitoring and assessment of the selected option be planned?

It is evident that both GIA and RIA aim to contribute to evidence-based, better-quality policymaking. **However, while RIA aims to improve the quality of policymaking in general, GIA has a specific mandate – improving gender equality.** This specific mandate provides GIA with the following two important advantages over RIA – as far as the promotion of gender equality is concerned:

15 See Chapter I, Article 2, of the Government of Georgia's Ordinance No. 35 of 17 January 2020 “On the Approval of Regulatory Impact Assessment (RIA) Methodology”.

Available at <https://www.matsne.gov.ge/en/document/view/4776100?publication=0>.

Key advantages of GIA (over RIA)	Result
GIA is concentrated on gender equality and provides in-depth gender analysis. Therefore, some gender-related issues , potentially overlooked or only partially studied in RIA (because of its general scope), are explored in greater detail.	Because of a stronger gender focus, GIA has the potential to contribute to gender equality more. ¹⁶
GIA, because of its narrower focus, requires less time and resources compared to in-depth RIA. ¹⁷	GIA is easier and less costly to implement.

The table below compares GIA and RIA along several dimensions.

GIA	RIA
Tool for evidence-based policymaking	Tool for evidence-based policymaking
Ex ante evaluation (most often)	Ex ante and ex post evaluation
Focuses on the gender dimension	Focuses on many dimensions (social, economic, environmental, etc.), including gender
Compares the selected option to the status quo	Compares the proposed option to the status quo and, whenever possible, proposes alternative (better) options
<p>Focuses on the identification and assessment of gender impacts along the following dimensions:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Participation of women and men in their social and economic lives ● Access to and control of resources ● Gender-based social norms and values 	<p>Should identify and assess, for each option, the following impacts:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Economic ● Environmental ● Social* ● Impacts on public finances <p>* Gender impacts are typically classified among social impacts.</p>

In several countries, GIA is integrated into RIA (for example, in Austria and Belgium). This is both a strength – it ensures that a gender perspective is considered by all policymakers and civil servants –

and a weakness, since the analysis from a gender perspective can be quite blurred when it is part of a bigger and comprehensive process.

16 The recent evidence from the Czech Republic and Slovenia proves that RIAs, with few exceptions, largely coming from the Ministries of Social Affairs where gender equality units were originally anchored in both countries, have gender responses that are relatively formal and “blind”. This finding is based on the analysis of 671 RIAs from 2007 to 2015 in the Czech Republic and Slovenia (Staroňová, Hejzlarová and Hondlíková, 2017).

17 By an in-depth RIA, the authors mean an RIA with in-depth qualitative and quantitative analysis, i.e. an assessment of the detailed impact of various options. The purpose of an in-depth RIA report is not only to quantify the impact but also to monetize the outcomes. This definition is in accordance with the Government of Georgia’s Ordinance No. 35 of 17 January 2020 “On the Approval of Regulatory Impact Assessment (RIA) Methodology”.

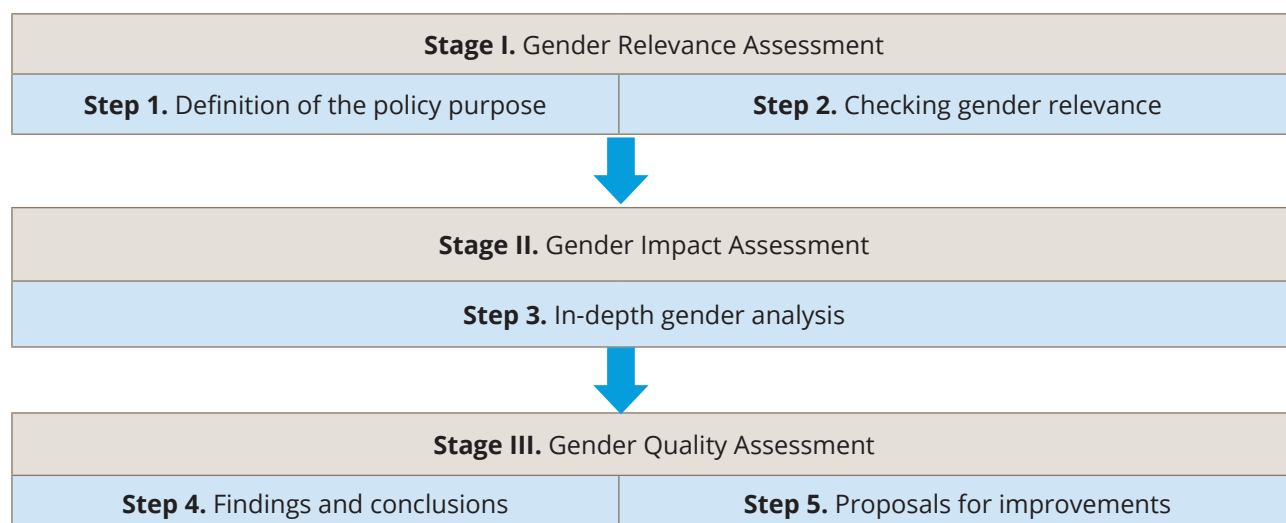


HOW TO CARRY OUT A GIA - A STEP-BY-STEP GUIDE

Most GIA frameworks include three assessment stages: first comes the gender relevance assessment, then the general impact assessment and finally the gender quality assessment. These stages in turn consist of several individual steps. For each step, policymakers and practitioners should aim to

collect and analyse as much data as possible to be able to answer the questions listed in specific forms designed for that step. The information amassed from all of these forms then constitutes the basis for the full GIA for that sector/policy. Diagram 3 presents the GIA stages and associated steps.

Diagram 3:
GIA stages and steps



2.1. Three stages and five steps of a GIA

Stage I. Gender relevance assessment

This first stage of a GIA is conceptualized in such a way that it supports policymakers in defining the programme (i.e. defining the purpose of the planned policy, law or programme). Furthermore, it presents the link to gender equality (i.e. checking gender relevance). Basically, this second step helps assess and describe the current situation through the gathering of available gender-disaggregated statistics and by identifying what is known about the different experiences, situations and roles of men and women using qualitative and quantitative measurements, as well as probing women and men who are likely to be affected by the policy priorities being pursued.

During this stage, public authorities are asked to find and present the answers to the following questions:

- What gender equality issue or problem is being addressed by this policy/legislation/programme/intervention?
- Why is this intervention being considered for this situation?
- Is the intervention intended to contribute to gender equality?
- How is the intervention intended to contribute to gender equality?
- What are the existing gender equality objectives in this field?
- What are the gender-specific indicators, if any?

Step 1. Definition of the policy purpose

Essentially, the first step of this stage is meant to enable the ministry/institution/department/unit to define what the policy/intervention is trying to

achieve, both in terms of understanding different problems and concerns from a gender perspective and in terms of enabling the equal contribution of a proposed policy measure.

KEY QUESTIONS TO ADDRESS IN DEFINING THE POLICY PURPOSE

a) What issue/problem is addressed by the policy/legislative intervention?

b) What is the intervention, why is it considered appropriate for this particular situation, and how does it aim to contribute to gender equality?

c) What are the existing gender equality objectives in this field?

a) What issue/problem is addressed by the policy/legislative intervention?

This initial assessment should reveal whether or not the policy/legislative intervention has a motivation or rationale explicitly connected (even though this is not the only motivation for the reform) to the existing gender inequalities and denotes a conscious attempt to consider the existing inequalities among the genders while designing the intervention, in an effort to tackle at least some of their underlying causes. If this is the case, a GIA can contribute significantly to the success of the initiative by ensuring that the proposed intervention is designed to address the true causes of the problem and, therefore, maximize the (positive) impact of the policy action.¹⁸ While this might be thought of as an ideal situation in which to implement a GIA, the usefulness of a GIA is probably even higher in cases in which the problem to be tackled by the policy/legislative intervention is not (apparently) gender-related. In this context, a GIA can assist in design interventions that – while remaining effective and efficient ways to address the main problem – have the most positive (or least harmful) impact on the gender equality dimension. In both cases, a GIA can contribute to determining

and highlighting the priority of gender (as well as the existing risks and opportunities) throughout the policy process, helping identify gaps between men and women, according to the criteria of **participation, resources, norms and values and rights** (Teschner, 2013).

The first step of a GIA requires **defining the problem addressed**, to describe it and analyse the importance and scale of the issue, showing the impact it has on the economy, society and the environment. At this stage, the GIA should seek to describe the causes and consequences of the problem, the target groups addressed by the intervention and the description of the impacts on them, with a particular focus on the causes rooted in existing gender inequalities and on the consequences impacting gender inequality directly.

When the initiative, among its explicit purposes, is addressing the existing gender issues, the GIA should provide a detailed analysis of the problem, both currently and in the recent past, studying **whether the regulation/intervention is necessary to overcome the (gender-related) problems**.

18 Please note that, as stated more forcefully later on, a GIA should not be implemented in cases in which tackling gender inequalities/issues is the sole motivation of the

intervention, as it would be redundant with respect to the standard procedures prescribed to perform the ex-ante impact assessment of the intervention (and in this case would clearly focus on gender impacts).

When, instead, the policy/legislative intervention is not explicitly targeting the causes of existing gender inequalities, the GIA should focus on two directions:

- The potential linkages between the problem being addressed and the existing gender inequalities
- A preliminary assessment of the linkages (and potential interactions) between the proposed intervention and the existing gender inequalities

In this case, the problem definition under the GIA perspective should focus on providing a clear picture of:

- The existing gender issues and the extent to which addressing them can contribute to solving the problem
- The existing gender issues and the extent to which the regulation/intervention can be expected to have an impact on them, highlighting which existing inequalities are more likely to be affected (in a positive or negative way), through which mechanisms and to what extent

Once these potential impacts have been identified, the GIA should provide an informative discussion on:

- **How the regulation/intervention could be modified to maximize the potential synergies**

between addressing the identified problem and fighting gender inequality

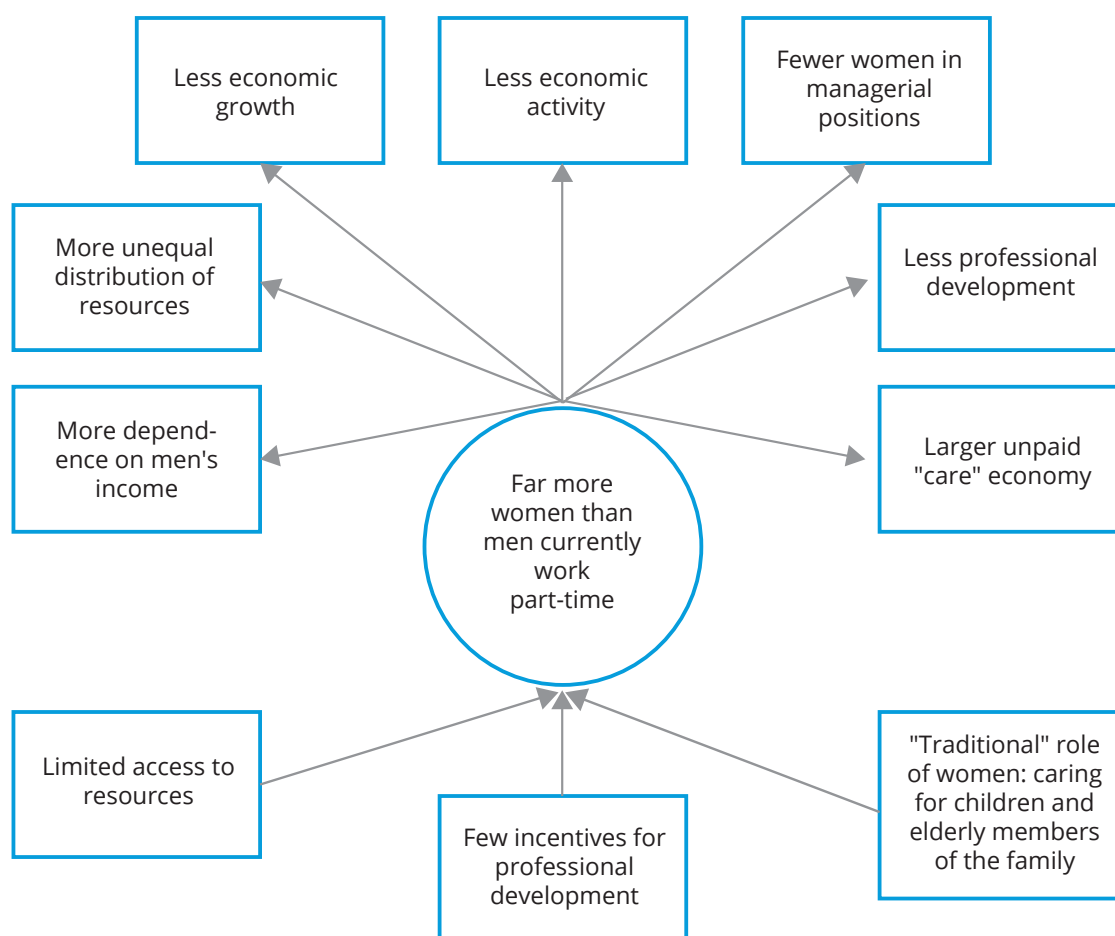
- **How the regulation/intervention could be modified to mitigate its potentially adverse effects on gender equality**

Analysing the current situation should also answer questions regarding **existing legislative frameworks**, what specific acts/laws are there to regulate the issue and whether there are some difficulties implementing them in practice. It should be also understood whether there is some unequal treatment towards various groups within society (with a particular emphasis on the gender dimension) that should be taken into consideration.

A useful tool: The problem tree

The so-called **“problem tree”** is a useful tool to assess the current situation and study/define the problem at hand, and it is often used in general impact assessments (e.g. in RIAs). This tool enables the problem to be presented with its causes and consequences. The idea here is to analyse the “core problem” (the trunk of the tree), find the causes (roots) of the problem and show the main consequences of the problem identified (branches). By doing so, decision makers will have the full picture of the problem being addresses and will be able to tackle the issues of the problem in its entirety.

Diagram 4:
Example of a problem tree



b) What is the intervention, why is it considered appropriate for this particular situation, and how does it aim to contribute to gender equality?

The description of the intervention should clearly show what the policy/proposed action is trying to achieve and who it is intended to benefit (directly and indirectly). The following questions need to be taken into consideration while describing the intervention:

- Who is the initiator of the intervention?
- Why is the regulation/intervention being proposed?
- Who are the “target groups” (preferably disaggregated by sex, age, locality, etc.) of the intervention?
- What are the proposed goals and expected outcomes of the intervention?
- Does the intervention have clearly identified

gender objectives? Does it contribute to avoiding any existing gender inequalities in the field, or does it promote gender equality in some way? Or does it somehow contribute to exacerbating existing gender inequalities?

The type of policy contribution to gender equality can be for the purpose of either **practical gender interests/needs** (i.e. changes in living conditions such as water provision, health care and employment) or for **strategic gender interests/needs** (i.e. gender divisions of labour, power and control) (March, Smyth and Mukhopadhyay, 1999). At this stage, it is important to highlight not only the quantitative impacts (such as, for example, a change in the number of employees) but also the more indirect and not easily quantifiable implications (such as the potential effects on the quality of work, on job security, on the possibility of promotion, etc.). One must assess both the short-term and long-term effects.

While proceeding with the analysis, it is important to:

- Pay attention to the specific groups targeted by the policy measures.
- Consider the effects on identified subgroups of women and men, and consider what needs to be done to promote equality of opportunities (practical and/or strategic gender needs) for women and men. Are there specific policies needed or specific groups that need to be focused on?
- Identify the facets of the policy, programme or project that impact on, or are affected by, the gendered structures (the gendered organization of work, the gendered organization of personal relations, the gendered organization of citizenship (Office for Women and the University of Adelaide, 2005)).

c) What are the existing gender equality objectives in this field?

At this stage, it is appropriate to present all relevant objectives that are defined at the international, country and/or regional levels, which provide the framework for the country's actions in the specific field affected by the intervention, from a gender perspective. However, unlike in the case of RIAs, the policy purpose/objectives might not be predefined by the policymakers while conducting the GIA. In this case, the GIA team has to redefine the objectives in a way that makes them gender-sensitive; it can be as simple as explicitly stating that the benefits of the policy must be equally accessible for all regardless of their gender or other characteristics. A clear presentation of the objectives enables better

oversight over the implementation and allows for a more accurate evaluation by leading to a clearer definition of relevant indicators. These objectives may have been defined by sector/field-specific laws or by more general gender equality and anti-discrimination laws, and/or they may have been set in governmental/ministerial decrees or derive by international agreements. The Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) and respective country-level objectives¹⁹ can be used during this stage as well. Annex 2 presents various official documents for Georgia in which gender-related country objectives on different levels (international, national, local) can be found. This list does not pretend to be exhaustive but constitutes a good starting point for understanding this stage of the GIA.

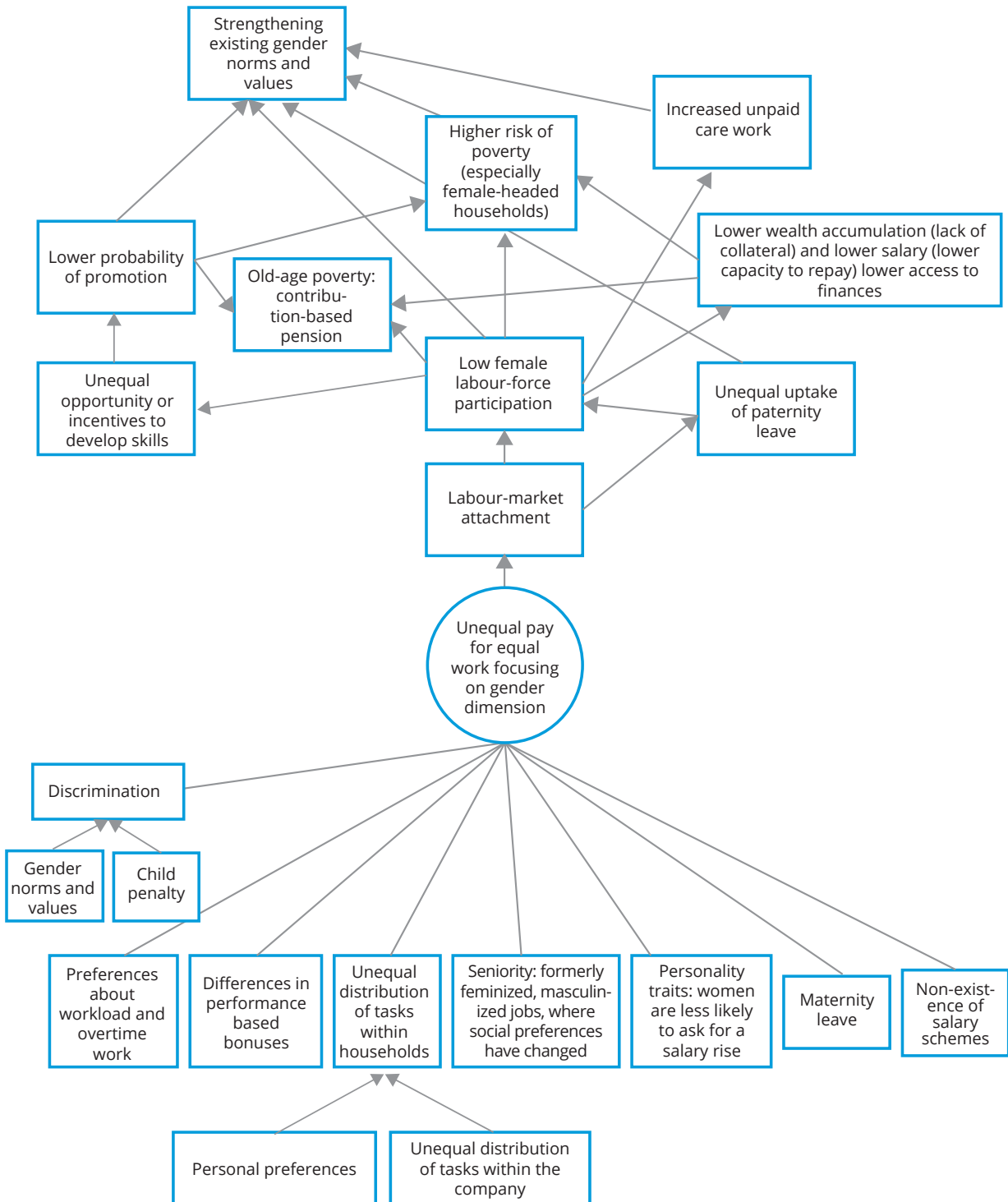
The proposed policy/intervention may or may not have explicit gender-related objectives. Therefore, it is necessary to analyse all of these country-level **general and specific gender equality objectives** (e.g. employment, health and social care, economy, infrastructure, culture, etc.). This will be crucial in the next phases, when the researchers will have to assess whether (and how) the intervention can be expected to contribute to (or hamper) achieving the already existing goals of the country in this regard. Besides the above-mentioned gender equality objectives, there may also be **gender equality objectives and targets envisaged explicitly by the proposed regulation/intervention/policy** that will usually relate to the aforementioned problem, causes and consequences. These objectives and targets should also be analysed, in order to see how consistent, they are with the general equality objectives of the country.

19 See <http://sdg.gov.ge/intro> for Georgia.

CASE STUDY

Assessment of Models for the Implementation of the Equal Pay Review and Reporting (EPRR) Methodology in Georgia (UN Women and ISET-PI, 2020)

Step 1. Definition of the policy purpose – The problem tree



Disclaimer: All case studies presented in this methodology provide short examples from GIAs. For more information and details, please visit the original document.

CASE STUDY

Assessment of Models for the Implementation of the Equal Pay Review and Reporting (EPRR) Methodology in Georgia (UN Women and ISET-PI, 2020)

Step 1. Definition of the policy purpose

b) What is the intervention, why is it considered appropriate for this particular situation, and how does it aim to contribute to gender equality?

Recognizing the **right to equal pay for equal work in the legislation is necessary and essential, but not sufficient**, for the full implementation and enforcement of the equal pay principle. The recent experience of the European Union shows that, regardless of the establishment of the legislative basis for equal pay as a fundamental right, the implementation and enforcement of this principle remains a big challenge (European Commission, 2020b), and this is partially reflected in the persistence and magnitude of the gender pay gap in the European Union (European Commission, 2020a). This European Union experience shows that the other pillars must be in place, together with the recognition of the right to equal pay, in legislation for the successful implementation and enforcement of the equal pay for equal work principle. These additional pillars are as follows:

- a) Ensuring access to effective remedies for victims of pay discrimination
- b) Ensuring and guaranteeing pay transparency and enabling pay comparisons
- c) Maintaining effective equality bodies and relevant institutions to ensure equal pay in practice (European Commission, 2021)

The EPRR tool constitutes the basis for the **equal pay review**, a process that “looks at pay arrangements within an organization to find, and address, gender discrimination. It involves comparing the pay of groups of workers who are doing equal work in the organization and then investigating any gaps by gender. It does not address the other causes of the pay gap such as occupational segregation, although these may be highlighted by the pay review” (Ritchie, 2010). An equal pay review involves comparing the pay of women and men doing equal work, investigating the causes of any gender pay gaps and closing the gaps that “cannot be satisfactorily explained on grounds other than sex” (Equality Commission for Northern Ireland, n.d.). Thus, on the one hand, an effective EPRR tool can contribute to ensuring and guaranteeing pay transparency and enabling pay comparison. On the other hand, it can serve as a protective mechanism against pay discrimination, as it may facilitate the work of equality (and enforcement) bodies, thereby supporting the strengthening of the third pillar. It also helps employers realize whether they have breached the equal pay law, allowing them to correct any remaining gender pay inequalities within the workforce, thereby strengthening the voluntary path towards pay equality.

The EPRR tool is not simply a data-collection exercise. It identifies existing gender pay inequalities within the organization and allows companies to investigate further – and single out potential causes of unequal pay. Promoting the usage of the EPRR tool will be an essential step towards more equal working environments for males and females and the reduction of existing gender differences in income and wealth. Enhanced working conditions for women are expected to result in improved labour-market attachment, which itself contributes to enhancing overall gender equality. Another expected benefit from the introduction of the EPRR tool is the increased availability of more accurate statistics about remuneration, disaggregated by sex, which itself encourages and supports further research on unequal pay, including its causes and evolution. As a result, it is expected that the awareness level of society about the equal pay for equal work principle and for the importance of securing women’s working rights will increase. Thus, female employees will have more information and opportunity to protect their rights, which itself will contribute to overall gender equality.

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CASE STUDY

Gender Impact Assessment of the State Programme Plant the Future (UN Women and ISET-PI, 2020)

Step 1. Definition of the policy purpose

b) What is the intervention, why is it considered appropriate for this particular situation, and how does it aim to contribute to gender equality?

c) What are the existing gender equality objectives in this field?

In Georgia, the agricultural sector is of a subsistence nature and is characterized by low productivity and low competitiveness. While nearly half of the population derives most of their income from agriculture, the sector contributes less than 10 per cent to GDP, and exports only account for about one third of agricultural imports. Improved agriculture productivity and commercialization can play an important role in poverty alleviation, the reduction of gender inequalities and social development. This requires improvements to producers' skills and the increased participation of small farmers in the markets. However, small farmers, especially women, often are not able to access available services and instead apply poor production practices as a result of limited exposure to proper farming methods. At the same time, research has shown that closing the gender gap in agriculture could increase the national agricultural output by several percentage points.

Georgian farmers face a variety of problems, including cheap imports flooding the country, underdeveloped agriculture infrastructure, insufficient knowledge and qualifications, the lack of new technologies and other necessary resources and inefficient work by both the private and public sectors. All of these issues hinder the strategic development of agriculture in this country.

Given the importance of agriculture for Georgia's social and economic development, the GIA team has reviewed and presented in the GIA report the goals and objectives of the country regarding agriculture and gender equality on the international level (the UN 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development) and national level, i.e. objectives envisaged in a number of national documents (particularly the Socio-Economic Development Strategy of Georgia ("Georgia 2020"), the 2019-2020 Government Program, the 2021-2027 Strategy of Agriculture and Rural Development of Georgia, the 2015-2020 Strategy for Agricultural Development in Georgia, the 2017-2020 Rural Development Strategy of Georgia, the 2018-2021 Regional Development Programme of Georgia, and the 2016-2020 SME Development Strategy of Georgia).

The main findings of this step were the following: while the international frameworks provide a comprehensive gender perspective and guide the country towards more gender equality, the national framework for agricultural development still lacks a gender prism. First and foremost, the national framework to guide the gender work is still deficient, and although there is a visible effort to highlight gender issues in different sectors, the simple inclusion of generic gender references is just not enough. These strategic national documents are needing comprehensive inclusion of gender analysis; evidence is not being analysed with gender in mind, and data are not being utilized, even in the cases where gender-disaggregated data exists. This in turn hinders proper targeting and resource allocation to reduce existing gender inequality in the field. Without fully integrating gender analysis into all stages of policymaking, and in particular in the action plans and budgets of responsible ministries and institutions, any significant development in gender mainstreaming and addressing/closing gender gaps will not be achieved. Agricultural programmes, such as Plant the Future, will continue to be perceived mostly as gender-neutral in reducing strategies' potential of gender-transformative power.

Disclaimer: All case studies presented in this methodology provide short examples from GIAs. For more information and details, please visit the original document.

Step 2. Gender relevance assessment

To decide if a programme is gender-relevant, a gender relevance assessment should be implemented. The assessment should be based on reviewing the proposed policy using the four criteria: (1) Participation; (2) Resources; (3) Norms and values; and (4) Rights.

Background Information

This includes information containing:

- A description of the proposed policy objectives
- A description of the target group(s) of the proposed policy
- Information on whom it might potentially impact

Note: Reviewing the relevant literature in the field – academic papers, international experiences, countries' policies and situation analyses – can be extremely helpful in general and especially at this stage of a GIA. Among other benefits, the literature review can help identify potential gender inequalities in the field, as well as their causes and consequences; learn from the results of similar policies in the past and/or from the results of similar policies implemented in a different context/country; construct a preliminary map of the most likely impacts and of how these impacts differ across groups; and identify the best research methods and techniques to use.

After reviewing the background information, it is advisable to keep in mind the following questions:

- Who are the target groups of the intervention?
- Does the intervention affect, directly or indirectly?
 - Access to social and economic resources by women and/or men?
 - Men's and/or women's participation in areas of decision-making?
 - The social standards and values influencing the origin and maintenance of gender inequalities?

A negative response to either of these two questions means the regulation has no relevance in terms of gender.

Direct and indirect impacts should be analysed separately, as they entail different perspectives in terms of general impact assessments.

Direct impacts – when the intervention **affects people's access to resources** (e.g. grants, loans, jobs) **and/or people's participation in areas of decision-making** (e.g. rules for the composition of committees, etc.). As a result, it has a direct and immediate effect on the status and position of women and men.

Direct beneficiaries – includes reviewing the direct beneficiaries of the policy/programme. They are the individuals at whom the policy/programme/strategy is targeted.

This light analysis should be further broken down by gender into:

- Participation
- Resources
- Norms and values
- Rights

Note: If there are no gender statistics regarding these segments, a GIA should be undertaken to gain better and deeper understanding of the gender impact of the policy/programme/strategy.

Indirect impacts – when the planned intervention **affects the means of provision of certain resources or services** (e.g. procedure to qualify companies, regulation of environmental quality management of certain activities and facilities, incentives for certain projects, etc.), behind which there are people (e.g. managers, workers, users, etc.) as the ultimate beneficiaries. Even though the policy is not directly targeted at them, they can be affected by it.

Indirect beneficiaries – includes analysing indirect beneficiaries, namely individuals who, even though the policy is not directly targeted at them, can be affected by its implementation. They could include individuals such as relatives of the direct beneficiaries or people living in neighbour- when the planned intervention **affects the means of provision of certain resources or services** (e.g. procedure to qualify companies, regulation of environmental quality management of certain activities and facilities, incentives for certain projects, etc.), behind which there are people (e.g. managers, workers, users, etc.) as the ultimate beneficiaries. Even though the policy is not directly targeted at them, they can be affected by it.

Evaluation

This is the final phase of the gender relevance assessment stage, and it includes an evaluation of the information gathered for the four criteria listed above. This is done to assess whether a full GIA is required. This stage requires a judgment that is based on the potential impact, be it extensive or minimal.

NOTE: It should be pointed out that the fact there are regulations and other administrative procedures which are not subject to the GIA does not mean that the people who must design them, make decisions concerning them or put them into practice are exempt from the general principle of including the objective of eliminating inequalities and promoting the equality of women and men in all policies.

Consequently, all proposals and legal acts meeting the above-mentioned criteria should undergo a GIA. Moreover, any proposal considered **not relevant from a gender point of view should be accompanied by supporting justification, explaining the reasons why a gender analysis is not relevant/required.**

CASE STUDY

Gender Impact Assessment of Georgia's Drug Reform (Gender Equality Council of the Parliament of Georgia, 2017)

A short summary of the international literature review

The GIA on drug policy reform prepared by the Parliament of Georgia (Gender Equality Council of the Parliament of Georgia, 2017) in the chapter about gender relevance explores international experience, which shows clear gender relevance regarding the drug policy. In particular, international evidence shows that there is a significant difference across genders in relation to the following:

- a) **Prevalence and patterns of drug abuse** – Generally, women start using drugs later than men do, and their use is strongly influenced by partners who also use drugs. Women in high-income countries have a higher level of drug use than women in low- and middle-income countries. Women are also more likely to use prescription drugs, such as narcotic analgesics and tranquillizers. Drug-dependent women are younger, less educated and less likely to be employed and are more alarmed, depressed and inclined to commit suicide.
- b) **Circumstances of drug abuse** – Both drug abuse and drug abuse by injection typically begin in adolescence and early adulthood. Some women report using substances to relieve stress or negative emotions or to cope with divorce, the loss of child custody or the death of a relative. Other reasons given by women for abusing drugs are to aid with dieting, to counter exhaustion, to relieve pain, and as self-medication for mental health problems. Women may face unique issues when it comes to substance use, in part influenced by differences based on biology and distinctions related to gender norms. Research has determined that women's experience with drugs and their ability to recover from drug use can be impacted by hormones, the menstrual cycle, fertility, pregnancy, breastfeeding and menopause.
- c) **Drug-related harm** – Women who inject drugs frequently report sharing needles, giving reasons such as being unaware of the risks, being unable to obtain needles from pharmacies and being afraid of being caught by the police. A review of mortality data in the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland from 2007 to 2008 revealed larger increases in overdoses (of all substances) among women than among men (17 per cent for women and 8 per cent for men).
- d) **Mental illness** – The dual occurrence of substance use disorder and mental illness is difficult to diagnose and treat and is more common in women than men.
- e) **Imprisonment** – Women's participation in the drug trade is on the rise worldwide, especially among women who lack education, economic opportunity or have been victims of abuse. While there are exceptions, women are delegated low-ranking, low-paying, high-risk positions. Women, and especially those from ethnic minorities, disproportionately act as drug mules. Drug mules are often forced to swallow or insert drugs into their bodies and are misled about the quantities they will be carrying, the means of transporting them or where they will be going. Because many countries determine punitive measures based on the weight and class of the drugs, and drug mules are forced to carry much larger quantities than the professional traffickers who work for themselves, women receive much harsher legal repercussions than the ring leaders. The population of women imprisoned for drug-related offences is on the rise. Prison systems typically lack gender-sensitive policies, structures and staff, and women are often subject to sexual violence in prisons and lack access to sexual and reproductive health facilities.

Disclaimer: All case studies presented in this methodology provide short examples from GIAs. For more information and details, please visit the original document.

CASE STUDY

Gender Impact Assessment of the State Programme Plant the Future (UN Women and ISET-PI, 2020)

Step 2. Gender relevance assessment

Background information

During this step, the GIA team conducted an analysis of the Plant the Future programme's objectives from a gender perspective. This programme is managed by the Rural Development Agency (RDA). Overall, the objectives of the Plant the Future programme are, by and large, very general ones; indeed, they are non-discriminatory and therefore allow for the participation of everyone regardless of their sex. As such, there are no specifically defined gender objectives. Outcomes, outputs and indicators for this programme are also not gender-specific as the programme is seen as open to everyone and thus not needing any gender targeting specifically, nor does it provide additional social inclusion mechanisms to increase the participation of women.

Considering its aim and scale, the state programme Plant the Future has the potential to take on a multifaceted role in terms of its contribution to gender equality:

- On the one hand, it has the potential to impact the **practical gender needs**, as by participating in this programme, women can support themselves and their households on a daily basis.
- On the other hand, it can contribute to **the strategic gender needs**, as programme participation can serve as a great opportunity for the long-term social and economic empowerment of women through its impact on women's economic activity and the changing social norms.

Direct beneficiaries

The GIA team assessed the gender relevance of the programme from the perspectives of participation, resources, rights, and norms and values. A short description of the results is as follows:

One of the main participation criteria in the programme is to **own the registered agricultural land or have a long-term lease** from the State. However, the analysis of the data shows how the perceived neutrality of the programme's criteria is actually unintentionally excluding a large portion of women from participating. On average, 82 per cent of the total area of land (including leases) are owned by men (Geostat, n.d.). According to the National Agency of Public Registry, the share of women among landowners in 2019 was 38.4 per cent. Due to the **existing social norms**, there also is a visible gender trend in terms of gender roles within the land registry practice; even if women own the land, it is rarely registered in their name. Consequently, the lack of registration usually minimizes the chance for women to be eligible for different government subsidies. Nevertheless, since 2019, land registry reform has ensured the possibility of the co-registration of land between spouses. Already, from the list of programme participants, we can see that around 2 per cent represent co-owners (male and female) of the agricultural land among beneficiaries (i.e. individual entrepreneurs and physical persons).

There are distinct roles within the division of labour within the sector that are perceived as being **either "male" or "female"**. Women in Georgia are mostly engaged in producing subsistence crops grown for household and domestic consumption, while men are responsible for cash crops and export crops – ones mainly produced as raw materials for the manufacturing industries or for exports to international markets (UN Women, 2019; FAO, 2018). Furthermore, due to market competition, cash crops require a higher level of information related to new technologies as well as input and output prices, and men usually have better access to such information due to stronger networks. In addition, Plant the Future used to offer mandatory trainings that were usually conducted on the premises of the agency and mostly in Tbilisi; therefore, poor transport and physical proximity could have been important factors limiting women's access to trainings. Unequal access to productive resources, social infrastructure, credit, women's engagement in low-value-added and smaller-scale agricultural production and less participation in public meetings and trainings also contribute to gender inequality in agricultural activities.

CASE STUDY (continued)

Furthermore, the programme has an **irrigation component** as a requirement for participation. However, not all farmers have equal access to irrigation benefits; usually these are women whose needs and interest are neglected in irrigation system design and provision. Considering that men usually own larger plots and have easier access to different sources of potential financial support/investment capital and have more freedom of movement, they have a better opportunity to utilize modern irrigation technologies (e.g. drip irrigation, sprinkler irrigation and/or motor pumps). What is more, considering that women mostly own smaller land plots and have limited access to finance, they are further expected to rely on labour-intensive manual irrigation. Thus, while offering co-financing of the irrigation systems, the programme should take into consideration these gender gaps, which it does not at the moment.

Overall, considering that the programme Plant the Future can have important socioeconomic implications by supporting local agricultural production and contributing to poverty reduction, simply focusing an analysis on the visible gender gaps without addressing the underlying factors would oversimplify this complex issue. The programme is skewed towards men, partly because agriculture is still defined as a male activity but partly because of the lack of the RDA's active efforts to change these gender stereotypes and take them into consideration while implementing the programme. Not considering the discussed gender gaps in programme design can significantly interfere with not only programme effectiveness but also the well-being of communities and households as a whole. However, exclusively focusing on the differences between women and men, especially in terms of access to resources and existing gender roles and values, can limit the analysis by homogenizing women and men as fixed gender groups without focusing on other social dimensions and relations.

Disclaimer: All case studies presented in this methodology provide short examples from GIAs. For more information and details, please visit the original document.

Stage II. Gender impact assessment

Step 3. In-depth gender analysis

The second stage of GIA implementation includes the third step, an in-depth gender analysis, which consists of two respective parts: (a) conducting a gender-sensitive analysis and understanding the gender context; and (b) weighing the gender impact. These steps are needed to support the policymakers in making policy adjustments, particularly in terms of reaching gender equality goals and equitable development and growth as well as in helping them determine the priority to be attached to adopting

policies that actively promote gender equality. Based on the findings collected during the first stage (the gender relevance assessment), policymakers should, during this second stage, assess the impacts (positive as well as negative) of the proposed interventions/policies, consider different options and weigh their impact on the target group(s).

This stage involves setting up a baseline, which includes the collection of full sex-disaggregated data as well as additional information such as age, religion, education level, marital status, gender roles, relations and other information needed to assess the potential gender impact.

a) Gender-sensitive analysis: Understanding the current gender context

Gender-sensitive analysis should be able to answer to following questions:				
Is there evidence about the nature of the problem?	How will it impact women and men?	Who will be impacted?	How can the problem be resolved?	Who can resolve the problem?

Performing a **baseline analysis** allows for an understanding of the current structure of the gender relations, including the functions (roles and responsibilities) performed by each gender group and the interaction between the targeted gender groups. The baseline analysis also assesses the potential capacity of women and men, boys and girls affected by the intervention to respond to changes in their environment. Although this stage of the process relies heavily on the collection of gender-disaggregated data to provide evidence for needed changes/adjustments of the proposed policies/strategies/programmes, it is equally important to take into consideration the views of those concerned (primarily the groups that are directly targeted) and to get answers to the following key questions:

- What are their expectations and needs?
- Are these different for women and men?
- Is the planned intervention addressing the needs of both women and men, considering their different interests, roles and positions?
- How can the contribution to the needs of women and men be strengthened?
- How should the inequalities between women and men be addressed in terms of access to resources (e.g. work, money, power, health, well-being, security, knowledge/education, mobility, time, etc.) and in their exercise of fundamental rights (e.g. civil, social and political) based on their sex or because of the roles attributed to women and men (i.e. gender roles)?

CASE STUDY

Gender Impact Assessment of the State Programme Plant the Future (UN Women and ISET-PI, 2020)

The analysis conducted by the GIA team within the pilot project of the Plant the Future state programme of Georgia revealed **gender-specific challenges** associated with the Plant the Future programme:

- The lack of institutional effort to question and change existing gender stereotypes in the state programmes and strategies further promotes these stereotypes. Most public officials (related to the Plant the Future programme in this case) lack gender sensitivity of the state programmes they are managing. Unless institutions and policymakers undergo adequate changes in their attitudes and behaviour towards understanding existing gender gaps in agriculture, the gender aspect in state programmes will continue to be seen as gender accommodation of the programmes.
- Gender inequality is revealed in the level of access to all necessary factors of production. If public officials fail to take into account the existing unequal access and control over resources while designing policies, it will lead to gender blindness in the programmes, not to gender neutrality.
- Neither programme evaluation reports nor performance budgeting reports present gender-related indicators or analysis regarding most agricultural programmes, including Plant the Future. The analysis revealed that state programmes which are considered gender-neutral suffer from a lack of data analysis from a gender perspective and sometimes even from a lack of availability of such data. Improving gender-disaggregated data collection should be one of the main goals in strategic policymaking.

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Setting up a baseline

In order to understand the existing gender context, it is essential to perform a gender-sensitivity analysis. There are several different gender frameworks that can be used as practical tools to integrate a gender-sensitive analysis into the baseline analysis.

The majority of these frameworks have significant similarities, but the scope of their analysis varies. Each gender framework usually focuses on a limited number of factors, out of the many issues that capture the complexity of the gender differences; therefore, no framework is believed to be superior to the others under all dimensions.

	Harvard Analytical Framework	Moser Framework	Gender Analysis Matrix (GAM)
Brief description	This framework, also known as the gender roles framework, is based on the efficiency approach and is designed to demonstrate that there is an economic intuition for allocating resources between women and men . This framework was developed as a grid for collecting micro-level data and examines women's and men's activity profiles and the differences in access and control over resources.	The aim of the framework is to integrate a gender-planning perspective into all development work and focuses on the power of gender relations . According to the framework, the goal of gender planning is to achieve equality, equity and empowerment. This framework has three main components: women's triple role; the practical and strategic gender needs; and the categories of policy approaches .	This framework is a transformative tool, as its aim is to encourage the community to identify and constructively challenge their assumptions about gender roles . The main assumption of this approach is that transformation cannot be achieved unless the analysis is done by the people being analysed. It analyses all four levels of society – women, men, the household and the community – and all four types of impact – labour, time, resources and sociocultural factors .
Limitation(s)	The main goal of this approach is to allocate new resources in a way that increases the efficiency of the intervention, rather than to create more balanced gender relations.	This approach only focuses on the differences between gender groups; thus, women are considered a homogeneous category.	This approach is relatively complicated to apply in practice as it requires a good facilitator, covers very broad categories, is hard to replicate over time and excludes a macro and institutional analysis.

In order to make the gender framework practicable and effective, it is essential to consider the following characteristics:

- The framework should have an explicit link to the **context**, as gender relations are usually determined by the existing setting. For instance, in rural and urban areas, the relationships between rich and poor community members vary.
- The framework should have an explicit **focus** so that gender groups are not isolated from one another and that the analysis focuses on the conflict as well as on the cooperation among them. For instance, a gender analysis that focuses on gender roles studies who does what, who has what, etc., while a community and gender analysis that focuses on gender relationships studies how members of the community relate to one another.

- The framework should have some **flexibility**, as gender relations and roles change constantly (and sometimes abruptly) over time. For instance, specific events such as conflicts, pandemics or economic crises cause certain aspects to change dramatically and rapidly.
- The framework should provide a **broad definition of resources** so that neither intangible nor tangible resources are overlooked during the analysis. For instance, if people have few tangible resources such as land or income, intangible resources become the key aspect in shaping their lives.
- The framework should have a **clear goal**, whether it will be ensuring the efficiency of the

intervention, supporting empowerment or both (or other goals).

How to set the baseline

The gender differences to be studied while performing the baseline analysis can be grouped into two large categories:

- The analysis of the **behavioural** differences aims at detecting the differences in the behaviour of targeted group(s) and decision-makers.
- The analysis of the **distributional** differences aims at determining the distributional characteristic of the targeted group(s).



Behavioural differences

Behavioural differences across groups are determined by **the set of values and norms** associated with gender in a given context and culture. In order to identify these roles, we can ask a question: “Who does what?” According to the “triple role” approach, gender roles can be grouped into three different categories (Moser, 1989):

- **Reproductive role:** includes childbearing and domestic responsibilities. Thus, the reproductive

role unites the biological reproduction, care and maintenance of the actual and potential workforce of the family.

- **Productive role:** includes activities performed for pay in cash or kind. Thus, the productive role unites market production, home production, informal production and subsistence production.
- **Community role:** includes the activities and time devoted to political, social and religious work. Thus, the community role unites care work, unpaid work and the provision of collective resources.

EXAMPLES OF ACTIVITIES THAT ARE INVOLVED WITHIN THE FOLLOWING ROLES

REPRODUCTIVE ROLE	PRODUCTIVE ROLE	COMMUNITY ROLE
Cooking, washing, cleaning Nursing Housekeeping	Employment Self-employment	Political activism Social activism Environmental activism Volunteering

The **reproductive role** is fairly labour-intensive, time-consuming and mostly unpaid. Commonly, the reproductive activities are the responsibility of women and girls. In contrast, the **productive role** is undertaken by both gender groups but with considerable differences in functions and responsibilities. Usually, women’s productive activities are less valued than men’s, with women facing gender discrimination in the labour market, resulting in gender pay gaps, vertical and horizontal occupational segregation and the like. The **community role** is also undertaken by both gender groups, but usually women’s community activities are voluntary unpaid work, while men are usually paid in cash for this work or benefit from it indirectly (March, Smyth and Mukhopadhyay, 1999).

An important component that contributes to shaping behavioural differences is the existence (or lack) of **rights (or formal norms)**. This refers to the access to justice and identifies existing direct and indirect sex discrimination and the degree of safety, including freedom from sexual violence and degradation.

Distributional differences

Distributional differences comprise two main aspects: participation and resources.

Participation represents the sex composition of the group(s) that is/are expected to be impacted by the public intervention, as well as the representation of the different gender groups in decision-making positions.

Access to, control over and benefit from resources refers to how (and to what extent) women and men

are able to access, utilize and benefit from the use of resources. Access to resources entails that women and men can have access to the resources. Control over resources entails that women and men can make decisions on how the resources are utilized. Benefit from resources entails that women and men can reap and utilize the benefits associated with the use of the resources.

Resources can be tangible or intangible. Some examples are as follows:

- Intangible resources: time, information, membership in different networks, education and skills, experience of working in different spheres, status, self-confidence and attitude, credibility and leadership qualities, etc.
- Tangible resources: financial resources, land, housing, means of transportation, health-care services, new technology, etc.

The following simple table can be used to identify the access and control profile of representative individuals belonging to the different gender groups. For example, in many developing countries, even though women as the members of a household usually have access to one of the most important household assets – land – they are significantly disadvantaged relative to men with regard to their land rights, such as ownership, management, transfer and economic rights (FAO, 2011). Therefore, unlike men, they do not get access to an intangible resource such as the status of a landowner, nor do they get control over the land as they cannot make decisions on how to use it, meaning they do not get benefits from the ownership of this asset.

RESOURCES AND BENEFITS	ACCESS		CONTROL	
	WOMEN	MEN	WOMEN	MEN
Tangible resources: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Land ● Housing ● Transportation ● Money ● Labour ● Health care ● Other 	+	+	⊘	+
Intangible resources: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Information ● Experience ● Status ● Other 	⊘	+	⊘	+
Benefits: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Outside income ● Asset ownership ● Basic needs ● Other 	⊘	+	⊘	+

CASE STUDY

Gender Impact Assessment of the State Programme Plant the Future (UN Women and ISET-PI, 2020)

Step 3. In-depth gender analysis

Between 2015 and 2019, a total of 1,305 gardens were cultivated under the Plant the Future programme, with the total size of the cultivated land amounting to 8,476 hectares. The total amount of investment reached GEL 87 million, 55 per cent of which was co-financed by the State. The top crop choices of the programme beneficiaries were walnuts, almonds and apples. The programme beneficiaries are more concentrated in eastern Georgia – more than 80 per cent of the total cultivated land area is distributed across three regions: Kakheti, Kvemo Kartli and Shida Kartli. However, when it comes to the berry subcomponent of the programme, almost 90 per cent of the cultivated area is in the western part of Georgia. These patterns could be explained by the characteristics and size of the land plot, as well as the climate conditions that could be favourable for different crops in the cases of western and eastern Georgia (and traditions of harvesting different crops in particular regions matter as well).

Financing trends: Studying the top 20 male and female beneficiaries based on the size of subsidies received, the average land size for men is 21 hectares, and the average subsidy is GEL 130,844, while for women, the average land size is slightly less at 16 hectares, and the average subsidy is GEL 100,805.

Participation: The average share (between 2015 and 2020) of male beneficiaries of the programme equals 79 per cent, while the average share for the female beneficiaries is 19 per cent, and for mixed gender co-owners (female and male owners together), only 2 per cent. Based on the in-depth interviews conducted by the GIA team with major stakeholders, the reasons behind the low level of female participation in the programme include gender norms (e.g. working in the garden is considered a physically difficult job that should be undertaken by men), land ownership problems, the lack of collateral and problems with accessing finance.

Land size: On average, 55 per cent of male and 51 per cent of female participants of the programme possess agricultural land that is smaller than or equal to 1.5 hectares; 32 per cent of male and 30 per cent of female participants possess agricultural land that is between 1.5 and 5.5 hectares; and 18 per cent of male and 15 per cent of female participants possess agricultural land that is larger than 5.5 hectares. Introducing the berry subcomponent to the programme increased female and male participation by around 17 per cent and 25 per cent respectively; on average, 45 per cent of the programme beneficiaries were involved in the berry subcomponent of the programme. Thus, the introduction of the smaller-land criterion positively affected women's participation in the programme (and had a positive impact on men's participation as well, hence increasing the overall number of beneficiaries).

Crop choice: There is a gendered pattern in the choice of crops that mimics the distribution of gender across land size. As a result of existing gender gaps in terms of the access to land and financial resources, women's participation is less predictable in cash crops, which implies that they are less likely to choose capital-intensive production. Walnuts, apples, blueberries, raspberries and plums are the top choices for the beneficiaries of both sexes, although not with identical rankings. In the case of smaller land plots where cultivating, harvesting and maintenance are possible to do manually, women tend to choose capital-intensive and expensive crops, such as nuts, unlike in the case of larger land plots where the potential need for utilizing automated equipment is far greater. The findings of this study show that export crops are preferred by men as they are more successful in fulfilling the criteria and not necessarily because they are not favoured by women per se.

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b) Weighing the gender impact

This step is about beginning the process of prioritizing the impacts – weighing the gender impact to frame recommendations and prioritizing them based on the significance of positive or negative impacts and the probability of their occurrence.

First of all, there is the need to assess two future scenarios:

1. **No-policy-intervention scenario** – understanding the expected development of existing gender differences without intervention. The no-policy-intervention analysis helps with understanding how existing gender differences outlined by the baseline analysis are likely to evolve with no intervention.
2. **Policy-intervention scenario** – understanding the effect that the public intervention can have on existing and foreseen gender differences. The impact assessment aims at understanding how the existing gender differences are likely to change due to the proposed intervention (to be compared with the no-policy-intervention scenario).

Ideally, the analysis must recognize the differences not only between but also within the gender groups. Since gender is a social construct, it is consistently influenced by other social variables such as age, ethnicity, class, religion, disability, sexual orientation and other characteristics. Therefore, the gender groups should not be treated as homogenous categories, as the impact can differ not just between women and men but may also affect differently women and/or men with different socioeconomic backgrounds.

Anticipating probable developments is a challenging task in general, and the context of gender relations is no exception in this regard. A lack of longitudinal data may mean that it will not always be possible to predict quantitative impacts. However, in many cases, it is possible to extrapolate current trends

and identify the strengths and directions (positive, negative or neutral) of foreseen impacts. The aim of the no-policy-intervention scenario is to present the expected evolution in the absence of the intervention and use it as a benchmark to assess the performance of the proposed intervention. This analysis is done independently of the effects of any proposed alternative policy scenario by describing the expected trends in male and female positions.

After identifying the existing gender differences under the scope of the public intervention, and how such differences can be expected to evolve in the absence of any intervention, it is important to determine how the proposed intervention can contribute to the elimination of inequalities.

i. Comprehensive impact assessment

During this stage, it is important to establish how the policy or legislative measure will contribute to gender equality and to assess the foreseen impact on gender relations. Once the effects of the proposed policy have been identified, they should be “measured”, taking into consideration the following criteria so as to weigh the **positive**,²⁰ **neutral**²¹ or **negative**²² gender impact of any initiative:

- Participation of women and men – The impact is considered positive when a significant increase in the representation of the underrepresented gender in the area is envisaged.
- Access to and control of resources – The impact is considered positive when the elimination of existing gender gaps (or at least a significant reduction) is foreseen. This reduction should always be aimed at increasing the physical, emotional and economic empowerment of women.
- Gender-based social norms and values – The impact will be considered positive when:
 - Mechanisms or structures that help reproduce gender inequalities are modified.
 - Progress in eliminating gender stereotypes is made.

20 The impact of the proposed intervention can be considered positive when the intervention considers the existing gender differences and, in addition to not leaving any of the targeted gender groups worse off, is expected to lead to improvements in at least some dimension.

21 The impact of the proposed intervention can be considered neutral or conservative when the intervention con-

siders the existing gender differences and does not leave any of the targeted gender groups worse off but is not expected to lead to any significant improvement either.

22 The impact of the proposed intervention is defined as negative when the intervention does not consider the existing gender differences and, therefore, is likely to leave one or more of the targeted gender groups worse off.

Categories	Type of impact	NEGATIVE	NEUTRAL	POSITIVE
BEHAVIOURAL				
	Norms and values			
	Rights			
DISTRIBUTIONAL				
	Participation			
	Resources			
TOTAL IMPACT				

For instance, the impact will be considered **positive** when the structure of the public intervention or the mechanisms used eliminates or dramatically reduces:

- The sexual division of roles and responsibilities and the existing gender stereotypes (Norms and values)
- Sex discrimination, thereby ensuring the equal access to justice and an equal degree of safety (Rights)
- The underrepresentation of a particular sex in the area impacted by the public intervention (Participation)
- The gender gaps in terms of access to, control over and benefit from resources (Resources)

ii. Prioritizing the impacts

Using the information from the comprehensive impact assessment, the goal should be to prioritize the impact by identifying the significance of the impact and the probability of this impact occurring.

iii. Significance and probability of the impacts

Based on the information gathered in the previous

step, all impacts should be identified and charted. Two charts are needed, one for positive impacts and one for negative impacts.

iv. Prioritizing the significant positive and negative impacts

This step determines the priority to be attached to adopting policies that actively promote gender equality and establishes whether specific policy approaches or actions are needed to ensure that specific groups (within men's and women's groups) benefit from the proposed policy intervention.

Stage III. Gender quality assessment

At this stage, the main findings, conclusions and proposals for improvement are summarized. In addition, to ensure proper monitoring and evaluation of final outcomes, it is important to identify data limitations and information gaps, assess which indicators are currently available and how useful they are in tracking the progress on gender equality, and set relevant indicators.

GENDER QUALITY ASSESSMENT



Identification of indicators

to allow for monitoring and evaluation of the actual outcomes



Assess **which indicators are currently available** and how useful they are in tracking progress on gender equality

Alternatively, it may be necessary to set new indicators based on pertinent sex-disaggregated data. Where lack of information curtails a proper analysis and thus produces inconclusive findings it is important that this is explicitly mentioned in the GIA report.



Making data and information gaps known allows action to be taken by those responsible to remedy this problem

Step 4. Findings and conclusions

During the fourth step, the results of the in-depth gender analysis are presented, and the impacts (positive and negative) of the proposed policy/programme are highlighted.

The aim of this step is to evaluate how the policy will impact gender-based social norms and gender roles and how it will contribute to promoting the equal social value of women and men, femininity and masculinity.

This step involves listing the prioritized impacts/recommendations that are accepted as part of the policy and clarifying the intended outcome associated with the proposed changes. It is essential to use gender-neutral language to guarantee that there is a fair visualization of both women and men throughout the document.

During this step, the accepted recommendations should be accompanied with the relevant list of implementation methods to give a better sense of how the recommended changes will be implemented, as well as to inform the design of consequent budget plans.

CASE STUDY

Gender Impact Assessment of the State Programme Plant the Future (UN Women and ISET-PI, 2020)

Step 4. Findings and conclusions

- The gender division of the programme participants varies across different dimensions, such as land size, crop choice, region and programme subcomponent.
- The reasons behind the low level of female participation in the programme include existing gender norms, unequal access to knowledge, gender distribution of land, lack of collateral for women and unequal access to finance.
- Data limitations and the lack of analysis of existing data from a gender perspective hinders proper evaluation of efficiency, inclusiveness, profitability and sustainability of the programme.
- Women should not be understood as a homogenous gender group; therefore, the programme should consider the long-term needs of rural women.
- Communication channels are not proactively encouraging women's participation in the programme.
- When it comes to monitoring the RDA's Plant the Future programme, it is based mostly on monitoring the implementation of actual activities and utilization of financial aid, rather than on monitoring and evaluation of the processes or impact.

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Step 5. Proposals to improve the project in terms of gender equality

During this step, it is necessary to identify what actions must be taken by all of the public institutions involved to ensure progress, given that there is a shortfall in knowledge on gender issues at all levels of policymaking.

Simply, the last step considers how negative gender impacts, whether extensive or minimal, are to be counterbalanced or removed. Then it can be deciding how this can be done – for example, by redesigning the proposed policy or, if the negative impacts are minimal, by only reorienting specific policy areas (that are causing the negative impact).

CASE STUDY

Gender Impact Assessment of the State Programme Plant the Future (UN Women and ISET-PI, 2020)

Step 5. Proposals for improvements

Based on identified challenges and taking into consideration the overall cost-benefit of the below proposed options, the GIA team decided to examine two scenarios of programme change and evaluate their gender impact compared to the status quo.

Policy Option 0: Status Quo – Programme design is not changed, and the current trends continue

As the main assumption of this baseline scenario is that the RDA will not use a gender-sensitive approach when targeting the programme beneficiaries, the participation rate for women and men is assumed to follow the existing trend. In this option, gender-transformative potential of the programme is untapped. By not providing structural changes to the programme or even simply introducing such instrumental interventions as lowering the minimum land plot size for programme eligibility, women's participation rate could still increase, but these beneficiaries are not likely going to be given enough support to become meaningful actors in rural development. As a result, the initiative will miss the opportunity to positively affect their everyday lives and enhance their and the overall productivity of the programme as well as the agricultural sector itself.

Policy objective: Introducing gender-responsive/sensitive criteria for the Plant the Future programme based on comprehensive gender analyses and developing the gender equality and analytical capacity of the Government's institutions

Policy Option 1: Traditional subsistence farming – The programme would be able to meet its socially responsive rural development objectives. However, by doing so, it would not be expected that any significant influence would be seen in terms of the programme's impact on enhancing and promoting transformative women's economic empowerment as such.

Policy Option 2: Commercialization of production – Compared to Option 1, this option would have far greater impact in transforming the programme's success in terms of meeting the objective of supporting and contributing to the commercialization of the sector and, in turn, contributing to economic growth from rural development.

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TO CONCLUDE

A GIA report should contain the following sections:

Stage I. Gender relevance assessment

Step 1. Definition of the policy purpose

Step 2. Gender relevance assessment

Stage II. Gender impact assessment

Step 3. In-depth gender analysis

a) Gender-sensitive analysis

b) Weighing the gender impact

Stage III. Gender quality assessment

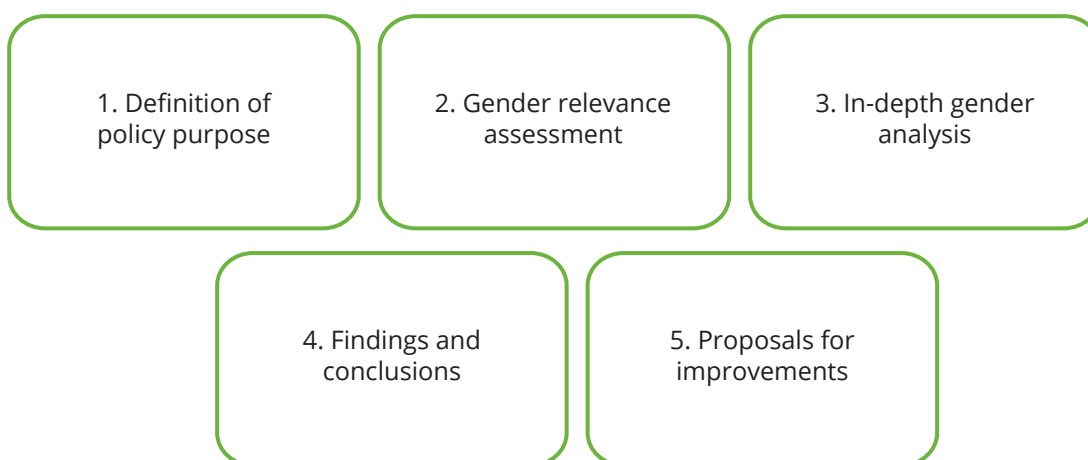
Step 4. Findings and conclusions

Step 5. Proposals for improvements

2.2. Format of the GIA document

Although there is no universal format for the way a final GIA report should look like, the elements listed here should be addressed in every GIA – be it a light assessment or a full in-depth assessment – as

a general rule to observe when preparing the final GIA report. Regardless of whether public authorities choose to carry out a GIA as a self-standing assessment or as an integrated part of an economic and/or social and environmental assessment, it should at minimum contain the following:



In writing each section of the GIA, specific effort should be given to including the perspectives of women and men, girls and boys, as well as the relation between them. Furthermore, each section should address and include the perspectives of a **diverse selection** of women and men, girls and boys. In fact, a common misunderstanding is that only the perspectives of women and girls need to be described.

When differences between women and men, girls and boys are visible, the gender analysis becomes an informative tool. It is also important to include a diverse group of women and men, girls and boys based on factors such as ethnicity, class, sexual orientation, etc. In doing so, there will be a greater variety of perspectives within the gender groups, with sex-disaggregated data supporting those highlighted differences.



PROJECT TIMELINE,
CONSULTATIONS AND
DATA COLLECTION



3.1. Advised timeline and resources

The resources and time required to conduct a GIA should be tailored to the goal and, therefore, the context and the scale of the assessment. For example, if the GIA is intended to be incorporated into a policy brief, it can simply be based on a brief analysis of the different needs and potential outcomes for various gender groups. However, if the GIA is intended to be incorporated into a large-scale project/programme, it will require additional resources in order to collect the necessary data, conduct specific research and engage all of the key stakeholders in the process.

Ideally, the GIA will start along or at the very early stage of the project/programme development. This will ensure that the policymaker understands the potential gender implication of the project/programme from the beginning and, therefore, plans and budgets accordingly. However, this usually is not the case. The lack of gender sensitivity of the policymaker can complicate the first but critical stage of a GIA – the gender relevance assessment. Thus, significantly increases the time and resources required.

Another important aspect that can affect the resources and time required to conduct a thorough GIA is the team composition. Ideally, the GIA team should include members with various backgrounds, such as age, gender and cultural identity, who will have a broad range of professional expertise.

3.2. Stakeholder consultation

Main benefits of consultation and impediments to good consultation

Consultations with interest groups and stakeholders are an integral part of the GIA procedure. By engaging and ensuring the participation of interested parties in the policymaking process, stakeholder consultations take into account the priorities and needs of different participants and promote an evidence-based and participatory decision-making process. Stakeholder consultations ensure that the priorities and needs of all stakeholders, including the most marginalized

groups and those who are usually excluded from the decision-making process, are reflected in policies, programmes and projects.

Stakeholder consultations provide valuable inputs at various stages of the GIA since **policy intervention might affect women and men differently** and there might be the need to better understand the impact of specific **policy interventions on the social norms and values, rationality and social behaviour of potentially affected groups**.

Stakeholder consultations **improve and complement quantitative information with qualitative insights** by identifying the different needs and priorities of men and women and by acquiring in-depth knowledge regarding gender norms, roles and relationships, in order to address gender disparities and promote women's empowerment.

Stakeholders' involvement ensures that different views, valuations and concerns about gender-specific issues are identified. It also provides more details and insights about the gender-related obstacles women may face and allow the identification of potential strategies to overcome these constraints. Therefore, **stakeholder consultations may improve public decisions and policies** by helping identify issues that might not have been considered initially and by proposing alternative solutions and future priorities.

Gender awareness increases as a result of the interaction between stakeholders of different backgrounds since during stakeholder consultations, participants have an opportunity to exchange their knowledge and experience on various gender-related issues.

Stakeholder consultations also ensure a more **transparent and non-discriminatory** GIA process due to the interaction between policymakers and stakeholders.

In addition, **possible bottlenecks and undesired effects** (e.g. widening gender inequality) of the specific intervention might be **revealed and**

addressed during the stakeholder consultation process.

In order to avoid consultations of poor quality and reduce the risk of undesirable consequences, such as widening gender inequality, it is appropriate to consider all of the possible obstacles during the planning stage of stakeholder consultations. Examples of potential impediments to stakeholder consultations (general as well as specific to consultations on gender issues) are presented below.

General impediments to good consultation

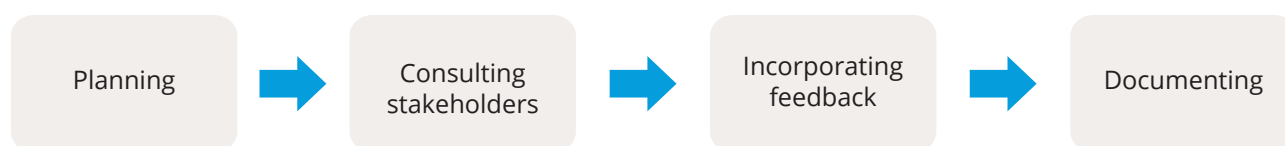
- Resistance to consultation from the key stakeholders, such as ministries and influential business representatives, either by refusing to participate in consultations or by withholding relevant information (i.e. information monopoly)
- Lack of time and insufficient resources
- Choosing unsafe and not easily accessible locations
- Poorly organized and managed stakeholder consultation process

Impediments to good consultation on gender issues

- Lack of gender sensitivity among interviewers
- Lack of familiarity and sensitivity to local customs and culture
- Failure to consider the needs and priorities of stakeholders
- Failure to ensure a gender and age (or other characteristics) balance in stakeholder consultations (as even individuals of the same gender might face extremely different challenges/opportunities and have varied approaches/perceptions concerning gender issues depending on their age or other characteristics)
- Failure to ensure a gender-balanced composition among the interviewers

Stakeholder mapping

Stakeholder consultations cover four steps: planning, consulting stakeholders, incorporating feedback and documenting.



The important parts of the **planning stage** are as follows:

- Defining the purpose and topics of the consultations
- Identifying the main stakeholders
- Ensuring balance in terms of gender and other characteristics and an adequate representation of civil society organizations and gender experts
- Ensuring and supporting the engagement of groups traditionally marginalized in the decision-making process, as they might have substantially different needs and priorities
- Allocating resources for consultation

Stakeholders might be divided into the following categories:

- Individuals, groups or organizations whose interests and/or activities will or might be affected by the intervention
- Individuals and/or legal entities that have the information, resources and experience needed to influence, formulate and implement the GIA
- Individuals and/or legal entities who are involved in the intervention process

The list of stakeholders might grow or shrink depending on the progress of the analysis. The

creation of a stakeholder interest-influence matrix, which regroups the stakeholders (depending on the stakeholder, sometimes gender division is important)²³ by their interest and influence level, will help ensure a high representativeness and engagement of stakeholders and ensure the inclusion of all main stakeholders in the consultation process. By influence, we mean the power to affect decision-making; by interest, the degree to which a particular intervention or a policy is affecting them. If a stakeholder is highly affected, he/she is classified within the high interest group. In case the effect on a stakeholder is minor or indirect, the stakeholder is placed within the low interest group. Government representatives, such as ministries and parliament members, are expected to have high influence as they are the main decision makers in the field.

However, their interest level depends on the specific nature of the intervention/project. In addition, the level of interest and influence of non-governmental organizations, international organizations and private sector representatives usually depends on the specific intervention/project being considered.

Below is an example of a stakeholder interest-influence matrix summarizing the list of potential stakeholders to be interviewed in order to assess the regulatory impact of ILO conventions on maternity protection (No. 183), workers with family responsibilities (No. 156) and domestic workers (No. 189). The implementation of ILO conventions involves multiple stakeholders across different sectors: government, the private sector and non-governmental and international organizations.

Example of a stakeholder interest-influence matrix

	Low influence	High influence
Low interest	Gender experts Labour-market experts Open Society Georgia Foundation	Parliament of Georgia: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Committee for Sectoral Economy and Economic Policy ● Gender Equality Council
High interest	UN Women UNFPA Human Rights Education and Monitoring Center (EMC) Georgian Young Lawyers' Association Transparency International Georgia Business Association of Georgia Georgian Chamber of Commerce and Industry Private employment agencies	Ministry of Internally Displaced Persons from the Occupied Territories, Labour, Health and Social Affairs Labour Inspectorate Ministry of Economy and Sustainable Development Ministry of Finance Parliament of Georgia: Committee for Health and Labour Issues Trade unions Employers' associations Public Defender's Office

23 It is essential to include marginalized groups, such as ethnic minorities, youth or other impoverished or disenfranchised groups.

The type of stakeholders and necessary resources, as well as the most appropriate consultation techniques, should be identified on the basis of the context and purpose of the consultation. In order for the **stakeholder consultation** to be effective, it:

- Should be conducted during the design phase of a particular policy intervention or of a project involving all of the key stakeholders
- Could be conducted also throughout other stages of the GIA (implementation phase, monitoring and evaluation phase)
- Should disseminate relevant information to all stakeholders in advance (to give them time to develop their thoughts)
- Should take into account local issues, such as language, social structure, values and norms, etc.

Incorporating feedback guarantees that views, needs and gender-related concerns of different participants are considered in the decision-making process.

Documenting the consultation process and reporting results back to stakeholders ensures the engagement of stakeholders over time and raises their confidence and trust. At the end of each stakeholder consultation, a written report should be prepared. Such reports will be used afterwards, during the preparation of the GIA document.

Methods and channels

There are mainly two types of consultations: active and passive. Conferences, panels, focus groups, interviews, workshops and surveys are regarded as active forms of consultation, while the circulation of documents for comments and the issuance of a public notice are regarded as passive forms. The choice of consultation technique mainly depends on the purpose and significance of the intervention, the timing of the process, the number of stakeholders and the resources available.

General recommendations for conducting stakeholder consultations in a GIA

Fostering stakeholder engagement and participation

One of the most important steps in GIA stakeholder consultations is determining how to involve the different female and male stakeholders. Determining the needs and priorities of female and male stakeholders for engagement will increase their participation rates.

In order to ensure participation in the consultation process, several points should be taken into consideration. **A gender-balanced team composition alongside gender sensitivity** will lead to the gender-balanced participation of women and men. Women need encouragement to reveal their views while discussing gender-sensitive issues. In such cases, it might be preferable – and more comfortable – for them to speak to a female interviewer/moderator. In addition to ensuring a gender-balanced team composition, it is recommended that female interviewers are more actively engaged with female participants in the consultation processes while discussing gender-sensitive issues, while male interviewers lead the consultation process with male participants. For example, when a focus group discussion is conducted on a very sensitive topic such as gender-biased sex selection, it is important to have male and female moderators for male and female focus group participants. This will ensure that participants feel comfortable and free to express their opinions about their reproductive behaviour and attitudes towards sex selection.

Being **familiar with and sensitive to local customs and culture** ensures higher engagement rates of the participants. In a mixed group, females might appear less engaged than males due to cultural issues. That is why there might be the need to hold separate consultations with groups of males and

females in order to capture each opinion and obtain information of better quality from the consultations.

Practical and logistical arrangements should be made in advance in order to ensure the availability of suitable locations. The locations of stakeholder meetings should be **easily accessible and safe** for participants (i.e. neutral territory). Choosing an appropriate location is essential, as it should not affect the outcomes of the stakeholder consultations. For instance, choosing schools and kindergartens when consulting with parents can be a good decision since these locations are easily accessible to parents and the environment is safe and familiar. In order to ensure more female participation, it is extremely important to provide childcare arrangements and facilities. If possible, it would be desirable to provide transportation options.

Active facilitation and participatory exercises will help identify specific issues and ensure the engagement of different groups of women and men. Such exercises include discussions about specific topics in single-sex groups or, alternatively, sessions about wider community issues in small working groups (for example, among women, the young, the elderly and migrants).

Key priority issues for women should be identified and discussed during the consultations. Moreover, the **equal representation of females from different age, social, ethnic, economic, cultural and occupational groups**, among others, should be ensured. Conducting stakeholder consultations with ethnic minority groups might require conducting consultations with simultaneous translation or in their local language, in order to eliminate language barriers and create a comfortable environment.

Stakeholder consultation questions in a GIA

For stakeholder consultations to be effective, the purpose of the research, the level of gender awareness among female and male participants,

their literacy levels, time and logistic limitations should be considered while creating consultation questions.

Asking the following questions might be useful in order to assess the existing gender inequalities in terms of participation, access to resources,²⁴ norms, values and rights,²⁵ as well as the potential impact of policy interventions on each stakeholder group and on gender equality:

- What problems does the policy intervention intend to solve?
- What are the main causes of these problems?
- What are the main consequences of these problems?
- Do you expect this intervention to address the needs of both women and men?
- Does the intervention consider the different interests, roles and positions of both women and men?
- How do you think the contribution to the needs of women and men could be strengthened?
- How is the budget distributed between women and men? Will this change because of the policy intervention? Would it change without the intervention? If yes, how?
- How do you expect organizing the division of labour to evolve with/without this policy intervention?
- Will the policy intervention increase women's access to sectors where they are underrepresented?
- How is paid and unpaid work distributed among women and men? How would you expect this to evolve with/without this policy intervention?
- What is women's engagement level in the decision-making process? How would you expect this to evolve with/without this policy intervention?
- How do you expect gender-based violence against women to evolve with/without this policy intervention?
- How do you expect gender stereotypes and roles

24 Including employment opportunities, money, power, health, well-being, security, knowledge, education, mobility, time, etc.

25 Including civil, social and political rights.

- to evolve with/without this policy intervention?
- How do you expect gender equality to evolve with/without this policy intervention?
- How will the policy intervention contribute to gender equality?
- What are the possible challenges that might hinder policy implementation?

3.3. Data collection

The overall quality of the GIA depends on the quality of available data. Therefore, particular attention should be given to the data-gathering activities in terms of identifying the necessary data, applying

Examples of the importance of gender-disaggregated data

a) Peletz and Hanna (2019) showed that women aged 25 to 44 and who hold status under the Indian Act are five times more likely to experience gender violence than other women of the same age and Canadian nationality (here data is disaggregated based on gender, status, and age). Aboriginal women in Canada gained on average 75 per cent of that of Aboriginal men.

b) The Office for Women and the University of Adelaide (2005) provides insightful example highlighting importance of the gender-disaggregated information in studying the impact of different issues on school retention. According to the study, the effect of teenage pregnancy on school retention outcomes is significant for young women, but only minimal for young men. Moreover, without gender-disaggregated data it would be impossible to analyse outcomes of different strategies and plan an appropriate policy that would be effective for the both gender, and deal with gaps based on gender.

the most appropriate data-collection techniques, collecting general and disaggregated data by gender and other dimensions (as assessing the gender impact of specific regulations or programmes usually requires specific data) and ensuring the reliability of the source and of the data.

Disaggregated information enables gender researchers to analyse many dimensions of gender equality and establishes a better understanding of the problem. The textbox on the left provides examples of such disaggregation and their importance.

The data-gathering process begins with the identification of the required and available data, which is usually performed throughout GIA implementation (during the stage of defining the problem,²⁶ assessing current trends for the status quo option, evaluating the impact of the regulation or programme,²⁷ quantifying the costs and benefits (if necessary) and monitoring and evaluating the enacted regulation²⁸). Therefore, in the preliminary stage, the team working on the GIA report should (Marušić & Radulović, 2011):

- Conduct comprehensive research about existing secondary data
- Study whether there is a monitoring system in place that enables the supervision of implementation and evaluation
- Identify stakeholders responsible for providing necessary data
- Define the techniques of data collection for missing data (i.e. employing different techniques of primary data gathering depending on the type and amount of information required and level of detail and accuracy needed)
- Determine the acceptable level of data quality
- Clearly indicate the assumptions helping to fill the gaps in case of data limitations

Considering that data collection tends to be a time-consuming process, GIA researchers should start

26 The data confirm or reject the existence of the problem and the need for intervention.

27 This includes selecting the indicators that enable a comparison of the status quo and the state after implement-

ing the regulation/programme.

28 This involves choosing the indicators that enable continued monitoring and supervision.

working on it as soon as possible. The required data might be found at the proposing ministry/regulatory authority, but it is conceivable that some data (otherwise missing) might have to be obtained directly from the target population (e.g. individuals, companies, government entities, civil society, etc.) employing primary data-collection techniques (including consultations and surveys), which will require more time and resources. Therefore, having a proper plan will help make the data-collection process faster and more efficient, requiring fewer financial resources. The preliminary stage of the planning should be followed by the actual data-gathering process (Marušić & Radulović, 2011; WECE, 2018).

Data-collection methods

A crucial prerequisite for assessing the gender impact of an intervention is the availability of gender-disaggregated data. In general, there are two techniques for data collection: gathering data from secondary (existing information) and primary (newly acquired information) data sources. Due to time and resource limitations, evaluators should use as much secondary data as possible. However, secondary data sources seldom provide all the information required. This makes it necessary to collect information (particularly the detailed disaggregated information about existing roles, values, needs and problems, which is difficult to quantify) by employing primary data-gathering techniques. Thus, the type of methods used in the data-collection process depends on the amount and complexity of information needed and the level of detail (i.e. disaggregation, not only by gender) and accuracy required.

a) Collecting secondary data

Desk research (a search of the literature and existing databases) is considered the first step of collecting secondary data. This process usually involves gathering, reviewing and analysing already existing data, policy reports, research papers and documents related to the topic of the study (i.e.

previously collected information). This method is particularly useful for gathering background information for status quo analysis. When conducting a GIA, desk research provides a basic understanding of the present situation about gender equality and context for the ensuing analysis of gender impact (WECE, 2018).

There are several ways of conducting desk research, as follows (WECE, 2018):

- **Literature review:** Reviewing the existing literature (e.g. publications, business reports, etc.) on the topic subject to the GIA helps develop a preliminary understanding of the topic at the theoretical and empirical level, assess the status quo, explore the existing information in the field of research, take note of the most useful methodological and research techniques, identify experts on a particular topic (who might be useful for getting further information via interviews and discussions), avoid duplication of efforts and give credit to other researchers. The literature review should be based on a plurality of reliable sources.
- **Review of available data:** GIA usually relies on data provided by national statistical offices, government entities and research institutions (e.g. via censuses, public registration data, surveys conducted by public or private institutions, etc.). While planning, researchers should take into consideration that it often takes some time to obtain information from the statistical offices or even private parties; for example, the National Statistics Office of Georgia requires at most one working week to share requested information via email.²⁹ The study should be based on trustworthy sources and ideally include gender-disaggregated statistics (preferably data should be disaggregated by sex and other characteristics). The GIA can be based on micro-level and/or macro-level data; for example, micro-level data are gender compositions of households (firm, individual and household-level data), while macro-level data are female

29 Sometimes requested data are provided even earlier.

unemployment rates (regional and country-level data). Researchers should pay closer attention to the reliability of survey data (e.g. sample size, margin of error, sampling method, geographic location, representativeness of disaggregated data, etc.).

- **Policy analysis:** Desk research should also include an analysis of the existing legislative framework (e.g. basic law, joint rules of procedures, etc.), government policy measures,

and public and private programmes. This kind of information is particularly important for GIAs of legislative acts, policies and programmes, as this process helps analyse the status of women and men before and after legislative changes.

The table below shows the type and source of secondary data that could be valuable for researchers working on a GIA:

Type of secondary information	Data source	Documents
Demographic	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● National statistical offices ● Regional databases 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Census reports
Housing, household and family status	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● National statistical offices 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Census reports ● Household surveys ● Time and allocation study reports
Economic status	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● National statistical offices 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Poverty assessment reports ● Status of women reports
Employment	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● National statistical offices 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Census reports ● Labour source survey reports
Education and literacy levels	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● National statistical offices ● International sources (e.g. UNESCO database, World Bank database, UNICEF database) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Census reports ● Household survey reports
Ethnic and cultural patterns	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Community and social development departments/division ● Institutes of higher learning 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Community development reports ● Special study reports
Health status	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● National statistical offices ● National centres for disease control 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Census reports ● Quarterly statistical reports ● Health sector reports
Communications	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Public utility departments/agencies 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Industry reports
Social and political structure	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Government information divisions ● Institutes of higher learning 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Division reports ● Study reports
Policy framework for gender and development and natural disaster management	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Disaster agencies ● Women's and gender departments ● Community and social development agencies 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Policy documents ● Legislation ● Guidelines ● State of emergency legislation ● Legal guidelines

Disaster impacts	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● News organizations/agencies ● Disaster agencies ● NGOs ● Internet sources 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Situational disaster reports ● News articles ● Web pages ● Hospital records ● Hotline records
Gender-disaggregated databases and gender indices	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD): <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ Social Institutions and Gender Index (SIGI) (http://www.genderindex.org/) ○ Gender, Institutions and Development Database (https://stats.oecd.org/Index.aspx?QueryId=87277) ● World Bank: Database on gender (http://data.worldbank.org/topic/gender) ● United States Agency for International Development's (USAID) Stat Compiler: Demographic and Health Survey (DHS) (http://www.statcompiler.com/en/) ● World Values Survey (WVS) (http://www.worldvaluessurvey.org/wvs.jsp) ● United Nations Development Programme (UNDP): Gender Development Index (GDI) (http://hdr.undp.org/en/content/gender-development-index-gdi) ● Global Entrepreneurship Monitor (GEM): Report on Women's Entrepreneurship (https://www.gemconsortium.org/report/gem-20202021-global-report) ● Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC): Gender Statistics (http://www.cepal.org/en/topics/gender-statistics) ● United Nations Economic Commission for Europe (UNECE): Gender Statistics Database (https://unece.org/statistics/gender-statistics) ● United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO): <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ Institute for Statistics (http://uis.unesco.org/) ○ Women in Science Data (http://uis.unesco.org/en/topic/women-science) ● United Nations: Women and Gender Equality Research Guide (http://libraryresources.unog.ch/c.php?g=462669&p=3162803) ● WomanStats Project (http://www.womanstats.org/) ● Eurostat:³⁰ Education, Labour Market, Childcare, Healthcare, Gender Pay Gap and other statistics (http://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/statistics-explained/index.php/Main_Page) ● Asian Development Bank (ADB): Gender Statistics in the Southern Caucasus and Central and West Asia (https://www.adb.org/publications/gender-statistics-southern-caucasus-and-central-and-west-asia-situational-analysis) ● European Institute for Gender Equality (EIGE): Gender Equality Index (gender statistics based on qualitative and quantitative research) (http://eige.europa.eu/content/activities/gender-equality-index) 	

Source: WECF, 2018; authors' considerations.

30 Eurostat mostly have statistics for EU member countries, but the institution also provides information for enlargement countries as well.

b) Collecting primary data

Secondary data, however, are unlikely to provide sufficient details about gender roles, people's needs, value systems and gender-related problems (i.e. more qualitative notions). Moreover, GIA should ideally include not only information disaggregated by gender but also (whenever possible) statistics by age, ethnicity, religion, household headship, employment and other characteristics, for a full understanding and tracking of the gender impacts and how they vary among different subgroups. Therefore, secondary data collection is usually complemented by primary data-gathering techniques, which might require extensive human and financial resources but provide a deeper understanding of the current situation and of the potential impacts of the intervention. The primary data-gathering process usually includes a combination of techniques depending on the specifics of the study: focus group discussions, in-depth interviews with stakeholders, resource mapping, participant observations and, sometimes, even quantitative surveys (Marušić & Radulović, 2011; CRS, 2013; WECF, 2018).

Primary data can be gathered mainly in three ways:

1. **Working with a focus group** to get information about the experience of participants – Focus groups should contain between 8 and 12 people (depending on the purpose of the study) and should be made up of different stakeholders separately (i.e. direct beneficiaries, local experts experienced in the field(s) of the study, etc.).³¹ It is noteworthy that focus group participants should be willing to speak up and share information and experiences. Focus groups should contain groups with only women, only men and/or mixed groups, depending on the purpose of the study. Focus group discussions can be more

or less challenging and time-consuming, and they help draw a more comprehensive picture of the developments of gender-related issues. WECF (2018) provides some useful techniques (exercises) for focus group discussions, as follows:

- a) **General focus group discussion:** In general, focus group discussions involve gathering a group of people with a common background and/or experience to gain information about their views and experiences on a particular topic (e.g. different forms of gender discrimination, the gender impact of different regulations and programmes, etc.). Focus groups usually are dynamic, open discussions about a topic, and they can even provide additional information to researchers through the observation of body language and stimulated activities of the participants. Focus group discussions usually involve the following steps: (1) identify the relevant types of respondents, find their contact information and invite them to the focus group discussion; (2) select a moderator and a field team; (3) develop a guide for facilitators and a format to record responses; (4) train the field team (including the facilitator) and conduct a pretest of the instruments; (5) conduct the focus group discussions; (6) create transcripts; and (7) analyse and interpret the responses. It is important to understand that the quality of the information obtained from the focus group discussions depends on the level of leadership and interpersonal skills of the moderator/facilitator. The team working on the focus group discussion should take into consideration the following advice (HERD, 2016):

31 These groups of stakeholders should not be mixed in the same focus group.

32 A leading question or suggestive interrogation is a question that is phrased in such a way that it suggests what the answer should be (source: <https://www.collinsdictionary.com/dictionary/english/leading-question>). For example, "Most employees hate working for more than 10 hours a

day... What do you have to say about it?" (Bhat, 2019).

33 A double-barrelled question is a question that touches upon more than two separate issues or topics but allows for only one answer. For example, "How often and how much time do you spend on each visit to a doctor?" (source: Survey Anyplace).

- Never ask leading questions³² during the focus group (to avoid signaling to participants what answers you are expecting from them).
- Avoid “yes or no” questions³³ because this type of question does not stimulate further discussion.
- Avoid double-barrelled questions because participants usually do not answer two questions at the same time.
- Never tell people that they are wrong, and always encourage participants’ contributions.
- Never express your point of view to avoid pressuring focus group participants.
- Never postpone the discussion of a particular issue, never saying “We will discuss it later”.
- Never put pressure on shy people to speak.
- Never gossip about the focus groups and participants after publishing the study.
- Always dress in similar clothes and act like the participants.
- Always plan your questions and the whole process in advance (to make it more efficient).
- Always encourage participants to speak more about the topic when they mention something you have never heard.
- Always try to hear other participants’ opinion about the issue raised by one of the participants.
- Always explain to focus group participants that the focus group discussions will be confidential.
- Always thank people for their contribution, and always be sympathetic about the issue that they raise.
- Be ready to change the order of the questions if participants bring up something that is more related to the later questions.

These recommendations would help gender experts extract as much information as possible and ensure the quality of the material collected (HERD, 2016).

- House of my dreams:** This technique can be useful for studying the gender needs in a community. According to this method, focus group participants (divided into female and male groups) think about what the “house of their dreams” would look like and compare it to the actual state of their household. This process would help identify the needs and wishes that participants think are necessary to reach their desired state (WECF, 2017, p. 43).
- Likes and dislikes of being a woman:** This method provides insight into the “pros and cons” of being a woman. This exercise is mostly done with women but can also be done with men. Within this technique, female and male participants should be assembled in separate groups. They list and then rank their “likes and dislikes” of being a woman or a man and discuss their choices with other participants. This process would help them gain a basic understanding of gender relations and of the prevalence of gender discrimination (IFAD, 2002, p. 22).
- Daily schedule:** This method allows gender researchers to gain practical knowledge about the division of labour within the household and about gender roles in the community by studying the workloads of women and men within the household. Female and male participants should be assembled in separate groups and asked to describe their typical day by writing a detailed schedule of the daily activities, assigning the appropriate time needed to fulfil them (daily activities should include all of the actions: work, care tasks, leisure time, etc.). Researchers should take into consideration the multitasking of participants (i.e. performing several tasks at the same time) as well as seasonality (to deal with this problem, facilitators usually ask

participants to write down their seasonal calendars). Practitioners sometimes ask focus group participants (divided into small groups, preferably containing people of the same sex) to write down a detailed 24-hour schedule of activities of all members of the household and classify the tasks as being productive tasks, reproductive tasks and community-sustaining activities (IFAD, 2002, p. 7; Khosla, 2008, p. 51; WECF, 2017, p. 43).

- e) **Resource mapping:** The main purpose of this technique is to better understand women’s and men’s access to and control over resources (i.e. initial allocation and distribution of resources). Women and men, allocated in separate groups, are asked to draw a map of their neighbourhood, indicating existing resources: infrastructure facilities, agricultural lands, shops, markets, water resources, health clinics, churches, etc. Then, participants should describe the map and choose the most important resources. It is expected that men and women would highlight different resources (FAO, 1999, sect. 6.2.1; WECF, 2017, p. 46).
- f) **Stakeholder analysis:** This technique allows researchers to identify organizations, institutions or people active within the community, assess how they are related in terms of dissemination of information, service provision, cooperation, etc., and identify gender differences in public participation and decision-making. Facilitators should create separate groups of female and male participants and then should ask them to draw a Venn diagram, where a large circle in the middle represents the community (or individual), while the other circles represent stakeholders. The

size of the circle indicates the importance of the stakeholder, while the distance specifies the degree of cooperation. Overlapping circles show a close contact, while circles further away from each other indicate loose cooperation. Participants should also mark institutions/groups with only female or male members (e.g. women’s or men’s clubs) (WECF, 2017, p. 49).

- g) **Unfolding personal stories and experiences about gender discrimination:** The purpose of this method is to encourage participants to share their experience (i.e. personal stories) of gender discrimination and discuss their feelings associated with these experiences. Participants, divided into small groups, should write down their experience of gender discrimination individually (answering specific questions about the act of discrimination, person/people responsible for it and their feelings and response), present the responses (usually employing the form of a wheel³⁴) and discuss some issues related to the discrimination (CARE, 2014, p. 200).

2. **In-depth interviews** with stakeholders – These are face-to-face or remote/over-the-phone conversations (usually one-to-one or with a small group of experts or other stakeholders (including direct beneficiaries) with similar backgrounds and experiences) that are intended to collect as much information as possible about the main subject of the study, rather than provoke discussion like in focus groups. The main advantages of in-depth interviews are the opportunity to ask follow-up questions and receive clarifying answers that would generate a deeper understanding of the problem. In-depth interviews are typically expected to

34 The “wheel of discrimination” takes the following order of discussion: (1) the form of discrimination (e.g. forced marriage, not allowed to become a police officer, etc.); (2) who was responsible for the act of discrimination (e.g. father, mother, husband, neighbour, government official, etc.);

(3) the feelings of the person being discriminated (e.g. humiliation, anger, hurt, etc.); and (4) the response from the person being discriminated (e.g. fight, reconcile, run away, etc.).

identify highly valuable findings. However, these interviews tend to be time-consuming (they need to be organized, conducted, transcribed, analysed and reported), and they are relatively costly compared to secondary data sources. They also need highly skilled interviewers to extract high-quality information, and researchers should carefully select participants to avoid

bias. In-depth interviews sometimes raise issues that have not been discussed by the research team beforehand, and interviews sometimes are helpful in getting access to secondary data (mainly through the people responsible for producing data and/or monitoring and evaluating programmes).³⁵

Description of the three phases of in-depth interviews	
Preparation (takes two to three weeks)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> a) Identifying and training the interviewers and translators (if needed) b) Prioritizing indicator categories – map each of the indicator and choose the most appropriate ones to focus on during the interviews (deciding what data/information is needed) c) Developing the interview guide (usually learning from the first interviews and adopting changes in the interview guide if necessary) d) Identifying and contacting interviewees (establishing the criteria for selecting interviewees and obtaining their contact information) and designing the interview schedule
Field research (takes one week)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> a) Setting research guidelines and following them b) Having an appropriate introduction, assuring interviewees of their anonymity (even by providing a formal agreement if necessary), and encouraging questions from interviewees c) Defining key concepts and discussing context-specific terms d) Using probing questions to gain as much information as possible (e.g. questions clarifying points to understand the root of the problem) and frame follow-up questions e) Recording information and making notes for further analysis (it might be necessary to involve translators in the preparation, interviewing and analysing/reporting process)
Analysis and reporting (takes one to two weeks)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> a) Preparing short summaries of each interview, including quotations to capture the spirit of interviewees’ responses (it is also useful to have a full script of the interview) b) Organizing obtained information into a report/study by identifying key issues, developing case studies and writing an overview of the evidence (it is recommended to employ software packages, such as N-Vivo,³⁶ Hypersearch,³⁷ NUD*IST,³⁸ etc., to collect and sort the data and make the information easily understandable for society) c) Converting qualitative data into numbers (after analysing narrative data), wherever possible, and making the report/study (GIA) even more comprehensive.³⁹

35 More information can be found in Colson Steber’s “In-Depth Interviews: Data Collection Advantages and Disadvantages”, 2017 (<https://www.cfrinc.net/cfrblog/in-depth-interviewing>). For more posts by Colson Steber, see <https://www.cfrinc.net/cfrblog/author/colson-steber>.

36 N-Vivo – <https://www.qsrinternational.com/nvivo-qualitative-data-analysis-software/buy-now>

37 Hypersearch – <https://awesomeopensource.com/project/kevinzakka/hypersearch>

38 Non-numerical Unstructured Data Indexing Searching

and Theorizing (NUD*IST) – <http://www.nursing-informatics.com/qsr1.html>

39 More information can be found in OECD’s “Practitioner Brief: Rapid Qualitative Assessment Tool for Understanding Women’s Economic Empowerment Results”, 2016 (https://www.enterprise-development.org/wp-content/uploads/WEE-Rapid-Qualitative-Assessment_Practitioner-Tools-Brief_Formatted.pdf) and Imp-Act’s Practice Notes, “Understanding clients through in-depth interviews”, 2004 (https://sptf.info/images/pn2_quip.pdf).

The research team should also take into consideration potential language barriers, especially while working with migrants, refugees and/or ethnic minorities (this recommendation is relevant for all of the primary data-gathering techniques).⁴⁰ Researchers also have an opportunity to distribute a short questionnaire to the participants of the in-depth interviews and focus groups in order to gather more quantitative information about some (quantifiable) concepts from institutions, experts and individuals (but they should be careful while interpreting the results due to small and not representative sample sizes).

3. **Surveys** – This data-collection technique can provide both qualitative and quantitative information. Therefore, surveys are mostly employed to resolve the problem of missing data after using secondary data sources and other primary data-collection techniques. This method contributes to a better understanding of the situation and of the evidence-based analysis. Technically, surveys can be conducted in person (which is relatively more expensive and time-consuming) and/or remotely by phone, email or social media. In general, conducting a survey consists of the following phases (Shelley, 2001, p. 5; WECE, 2018):

- a) **Define the problem** that needs to be examined, identify the target population and determine the variables that need to be measured.
- b) **Determine the specific technique of data collection** – for example, in-person interviews, phone surveys, mailed questionnaires, drop-off surveys and web-based surveys. Practitioners should take into consideration the feasibility, time and cost of research while they are deciding the data-collection technique.

- c) **Determine a sampling plan and sample size**, first choosing an appropriate sampling method – for example, random sampling, stratified sampling, systemic sampling, etc. (Sincero, 2012; Foley, 2018). In addition, practitioners should include as many women as men in their sample in order to collect sex-disaggregated data. They should also make sure to include in the sample people who have the knowledge to provide the necessary information.
- d) **Develop the questionnaire** in the following way: (a) decide which questions to include in the questionnaire (it should be comprehensive and cover all important themes that are important for the study, but practitioners should think ahead about the quantification of qualitative information, and they should make a choice between open-ended and closed-ended questions); (b) choose the appropriate wording for the questionnaire (practitioners should avoid potential biases,⁴¹ complex wording, too-long questions, political language and questions already indicating the answer to the respondents); (c) organize the questions in a logical/meaningful order; and (d) pretest the questionnaire (check to see if it takes too long for participants to complete), in addition to having it proofread several times by different parties (to avoid typos or other mistakes).
- e) **Edit, process and analyse the data**, which includes the process of data cleaning, making data readable for statistical/econometric software and minimizing errors, followed by analysing descriptive statistics, employing statistical software (e.g. SPSS,⁴² Stata,⁴³ etc.) and using different statistical/econometric models (e.g. ANOVA,⁴⁴ ANCOVA,⁴⁵ SEM,⁴⁶

40 More information can be found in Esposito and Daaji's "Gender Impact Assessment of the Council of Europe Youth for Democracy Programme", 2019, p. 43 (<https://rm.coe.int/gender-impact-assessment-youth-for-democracy/168098008d>).

41 The following sources of bias exist in survey research: (1) interviewer effects; (2) respondent effects; (3) situational effects; and (4) problems with the survey instrument (Shelley, 2001, p. 5).

42 Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) – <https://>

www.ibm.com/products/spss-statistics

43 Stata – <https://www.stata.com/>

44 Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) – <https://www.statisticshowto.datasciencecentral.com/probability-and-statistics/hypothesis-testing/anova/>

45 Analysis of Covariance (ANCOVA) – <https://www.statisticshowto.datasciencecentral.com/ancova/>

46 Standard Error of the Mean (SEM) – <https://www.investopedia.com/ask/answers/042415/what-difference-between-standard-error-means-and-standard-deviation.asp>

other regression models) to gain a deeper understanding of the statistical information, developing findings and conclusions and, lastly, writing up a summary of the major findings.

The main advantages of sample surveys are (1) the acquisition of relatively reliable data and (2) the opportunity to process data, while the main disadvantages of surveys are (1) the relatively high costs and time for implementation and (2) the absence of any provided information about the issues that has not been taken into consideration by the research team working on the questionnaire (Shelley, 2001; WECF, 2018; Marušić & Radulović, 2011).

4. Other data-gathering techniques are economic and/or **data modelling**, employing **big data** (UN Women, 2018):

- a) **Human-sourced data:** social media, blogs, vlogs, Internet forums, wikis, Internet searches, email or SMS content
- b) **Machine-generated data:** road sensor data, smart metre electricity data, scanner data, satellite/aerial imagery data, traffic-loop webcam data, vessel identification, internet of things (IOT)
- c) **Crowdsourcing data:** citizen-generated data, image collection, volunteered geographical information (VGI)
- d) **Process-mediated data:** health records, mobile phone data, credit card data, public transport usage data, job application records, chip identification data, e-government data
- e) **Media-sourced data:** TV and radio broadcast data, podcast data, digital

newspapers (these data sources are mostly disaggregated by gender), and/or **other machine learning systems** (training multiple data sources (e.g. Google image search results) to get more accurate information) (Wojcik & Remy, 2019) to obtain necessary information

- f) Applying other methods, such as **ethnography**⁴⁷ (the scientific description of the customs, habits and mutual differences of people and cultures), **narrative and descriptive qualitative approaches** and using **experiments** to study the behaviour of people:
 - i. Laboratory experiments, taking place in a controlled environment
 - ii. Field experiments, taking place in a natural environment (i.e. in the field), in which case data collectors may not be able to fully control (only partially) for the impact of even slight differences in the surrounding environment
 - iii. Natural experiments, where data collectors have no control over the independent variables (by letting independent variables occur naturally) (Belyh, 2017)

Both qualitative and quantitative techniques can be employed for data gathering and for the analysis in the GIA. The choice of the appropriate method depends on the subject of the research, on the time frame of the study, on the availability of resources and on other specificities of the study. In general, the comparison of the qualitative and quantitative methods for data collection and analysis in terms of research infrastructure provides the insights below (Mander, 2014; Robinson, 2014; Research Evolution Consulting, 2016; Spanache & Havas, 2017).

47 An example of employing ethnographic research in gender studies could be found in Georgetown University's Institute for Reproductive Health (IRH) "Ethnographic Research Findings from the Gender Roles, Equality and

Transformations (GREAT) Project", 2012, Uganda (http://irh.org/wp-content/uploads/2013/04/GREAT_EthnographicResearchFindings_11812.pdf).

Qualitative techniques	Quantitative techniques
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Take into account the specificities of the research and could be applied for great variety of the research topics ● Generate a considerable risk of subjectivity (possible biases) ● Provide depth and detail of analysis and encourage further discussion ● Allow more flexibility to adapt new circumstances during the interview/focus group discussions ● Allow more flexibility in terms of locations and timing because such techniques do not require interviewing a large number of people at once ● Do not allow (or at least make it difficult) to generalize results to the whole target population because of the small sample size ● Depend on the skilled researchers to secure the quality of the responses ● Generate the challenge of maintaining the anonymity of the respondents, which might create awkward situations and make people uncomfortable to answer personal questions and share personal experiences ● Make it difficult to interpret the results and/or make comparisons 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Allow researchers to collect data faster, easier and more cost efficiently compared to the qualitative techniques of data gathering ● Collect more objective and accurate data compared to qualitative methods ● Make findings comparable between groups ● Do not allow (or at least make it difficult) to quantify some variables, such as values, feelings, behaviour, etc. ● Do not have a common framework to measure impacts and effectiveness properly ● Cannot handle multiple causalities (multicausality) where a single impact could have several attributions ● Have some time frame challenges for taking measurements and modelling ● Distort information by including preset answers in the questionnaire that might mask the real attitude and behaviour of respondents

c) Dealing with the lack of data

GIA heavily depends on the availability of sex-disaggregated data, which are often missing. These gaps in the data-gathering process may severely limit the quality of the GIA and the possibility to carry it out effectively; among the most challenging data sets in terms of availability, for example, are gender-disaggregated time-use tables and the evaluation of women’s unpaid care work. Developing the GIA in the absence of such data may result in overdependence on speculation and perception (EIGE, 2016).

There are three main reasons for the lack of basic gender-related data (Peng, 2015):

1. Government and research institutions did not have any relevant study or survey to generate basic gender-specific data.

2. The project (or programme) planners, who were not familiar with the peculiarities of gathering gender-related information, were not able to provide relevant gender statistics.
3. Planners (i.e. the people responsible for gathering data) were reluctant to find or prepare related information.

In case the lack of basic (gender-disaggregated) statistics is discovered within a GIA exercise, there should be an effective feedback and reporting mechanism that allows responsible agencies or government units to generate (and/or gather) required statistics. Moreover, it is important to make the gaps in the data collection explicit and visible in the report in order to provide readers with the appropriate information about data availability, which might potentially have an impact on readers’ interpretations of the GIA outcomes (EIGE, 2016).

Advice on how to deal with a lack of gender-disaggregated statistics is as follows (Peng, 2015):

- When statistical information is not available at the national level (i.e. gender-disaggregated data), researchers should attempt to obtain regional data – for example, from the gender databases of the European Union, the Asian Development Bank, the World Bank and UNESCO.
- The lack of secondary information sometimes could be resolved by applying the primary data-gathering techniques (which are more time-consuming and costly but sometimes essential) and even applying more innovative techniques – like data mining and machine learning – to

obtain the scarcest information and obtain more accurate data for further information.

- Variables that are not directly available from secondary data sources could be substituted by proxy variables that measure similar things. For example, there is no statistical information about gender values, but these variables could be approximated by the average marriage age. Improvements in the gender values are reflected in a higher marriage age, with less early marriages representing an increased value for women and more empowered women deciding to pursue their career and get married later, and in a higher divorce rate, with empowered women daring to divorce (ISET-PI and UNFPA, 2020).

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